DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 048 023 SO 000 500

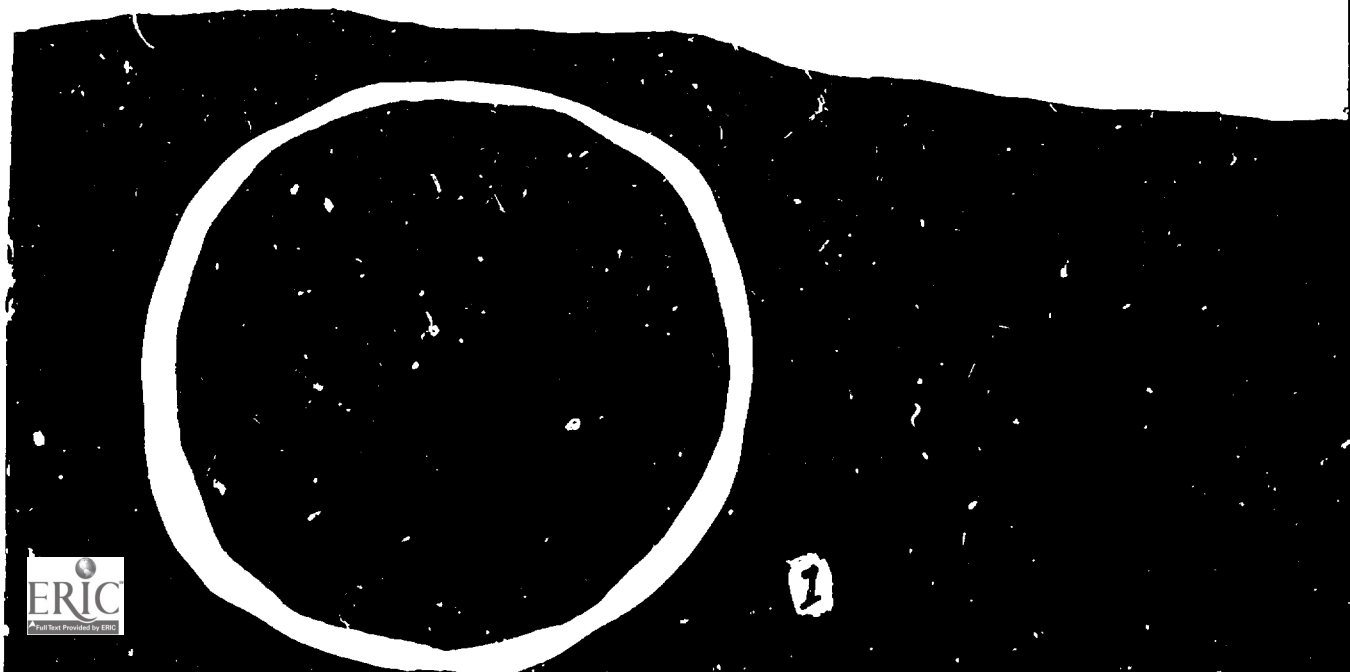
TITLE	Knowledge Processes and Values in the New Social Studies.
INSTITUTION	Wisconsin State Dept. of Public Instruction, Madison.
REPORT NO	Bull-185
PUB DATE	70
NOTE	85p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	Affective Objectives, Cognitive Development, Concept Formation, *Concept Teaching, *Curriculum Guides, Elementary Grades, Fundamental Concepts, Inductive Methods, Interdisciplinary Approach, Kindergarten, Secondary Grades, Social Attitudes, Socialization, *Social Studies, Teaching Techniques

ABSTRACT

This guide for teacher K-12 is an outgrowth of an earlier guide for the teaching of social studies in Wisconsin schools. The new guide re-emphasizes the teaching of social knowledge and skills and devotes approximately one half of its length to the teaching of values, a subject neglected in the earlier guide. In the first two sections dealing with knowledge the concern is with current social science knowledge, the thinking skills necessary to arrive at knowledge, and the necessary teaching strategies. In the final section which covers values the intent is to provide the teacher with the rationale for including the study of values in his classroom and to provide him with some strategies for teaching about valuing. The overall tone of the guide and especially of section III is on integration of not only the various social sciences, but of knowledges and rational skills to arrive at values which will produce meaning in the individual life of the student. A bibliography is included. (CWB)

KNOWLEDGE PROCESSES & VALUES IN THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES

WISCONSIN DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
William C. Kahl, State Superintendent



KNOWLEDGE PROCESSES and VALUES in the NEW SOCIAL STUDIES

WISCONSIN SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM STUDY

prepared by the State Social Studies Committee, 1968-1970

WISCONSIN DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
126 Langdon Street, Madison, Wis. 53702
WILLIAM C. KAHL, State Superintendent
BULLETIN NO. 185

State Social Studies Committee 1968-70

John Bernd, WSU-Stevens Point
Edward Blackorby, WSU-Eau Claire
Orville Christian, Wausau
William Colby, DPI-Madison
Donald Davis, WSU-La Crosse
Roger Dickert, Mukwonago
William Dunwiddie, Neenah
George Durnford, Monona Grove
William Ernst, DPI-Madison
Thurman Fox, State Historical Society-Madison
Neil Gallagher, WSU-Platteville
H. Michael Hartoonian, DPI-Madison
Adeline Hartung, Milwaukee
Harvey Humke, Green Bay
Robert Johnson, West Allis
Emlyn Jones, Auburn, Washington
George Kaprelian, WSU-Whitewater
Glenn Kinzie, WSU-Oshkosh
Helen Kitelinger, Janesville
Omar Kussow, Madison
Olive Leary, Hales Corners
Alice Maronn, Elm Grove
Catharine McCloskey, McFarland
William Merwin, WSU-La Crosse
Russell Mosely, DPI-Madison
Clarence Newton, Shawano
Ida Ooley, Madison
John Palmer, UW-Madison
Thelma Peters, Verona
Doris Phipps, CESA #10-Plymouth
Louis Rittschof, UW-Milwaukee
Arthur Rumpf, General Chairman, 1968-70, Milwaukee
John Sable, Antigo
Norris Sanders, Manitowoc
Maxine Sawtelle, Milwaukee
Paul Schoenike, Monroe
Warren Shrake, Oak Creek
Ray Staszak, West DePere
Joseph V. Strunka, WSU-River Falls
B. Robert Tabachnick, UW-Madison
Marlin Tanck, Manitowoc
Claud Thompson, WSU-Oshkosh
Donald Thompson, Racine
Robert Warpinski, CESA #9-Green Bay
Elmer Winters, WSU-Eau Claire
Albert Yee, UW-Madison
Malcolm Young, Schofield

Editorial Committee

Donald Davis, Glenn Kinzie, Omar Kussow, Olive Leary, Russell Mosely, John Palmer, Arthur Rumpf, Marlin Tanck, Claud Thompson, H. Michael Hartoonian, chairman.

Table of Contents

Foreword

The nation's educational systems persist because Americans believe that schools do something worthwhile that no other social institution can do. This something of value deserving support is generally expressed as a combination of the right of the individual to equal and adequate educational opportunities, and society's need for citizens who can participate effectively in the world of their day. Lofty statements, such as "education for effective citizenship," "self-realization for every individual," and "pursuit of excellence," resound this general belief in the value of education. The President's Commission on National Goals (1960) stated:

> The development of the individual and the nation demands that education at every level and in every discipline be strengthened and its effectiveness enhanced . . . Greater resources — private, corporate, municipal, state, and federal — must be mobilized. A higher proportion of gross national product must be devoted to education purposes. This is at once an investment in the individual, in the democratic process, in the growth of the economy and in the stature of the United States.

In such worthy terms, proposals such as the above can act as symbols pointing to future goals. Preparation of the young for present and future effectiveness and self realization in a free society has been the general objective of American education, yet translation of such goals into specifics has always been a difficult problem. The Wisconsin Social Studies Curriculum Study has been dealing with this problem since 1964, and, due in large measure to this effort, we can be justly proud of the nature of social studies education in Wisconsin.

In 1964 **A Conceptual Framework for the Social Studies in Wisconsin Schools** was published as one possible guide for school systems and social studies teachers in their efforts to improve local programs. The two major purposes of this document were:

(1) to familiarize the teacher with the several social science disciplines—hopefully creating a more open curriculum; and (2) to provide a guide for coordinating the K-12 social studies program, delineating some common concepts in increasing degrees of sophistication. Because of widespread acceptance and use of this planning aid, not only a second but a third reprinting was found necessary. Thus, the 1967 revision entitled **A Conceptual Framework for the Social Studies** was published. It too has been in constant demand; however, the curriculum workers who have found use for it have consistently expressed the need for a companion publication to assist them in further development and teacher-learning procedures.

Specific concern seems to center around demands for help in the areas of (1) the nature of knowledge, (2) inquiry and problem solving techniques and (3) values and valuing. To help meet this need the State Social Studies Curriculum Committee has worked for over a year on this present publication. I am sure the social studies educators will find the information interesting and useful. Further, the specific examples of teaching strategies will certainly classify this work as something over and above a philosophical statement.

This publication was designed primarily for use in inservice and preservice experiences. It is hoped that the ideas contained herein will serve as a viable tool for instructional leaders in social studies education. Teachers should also find the several specific strategies useful as they design daily lessons. Finally, it should be clear that other disciplines outside the social studies may find utility in this guide, and certainly those schools that are considering a combination of social studies and science or social studies, science and English, will find a plan for integration in the following pages.

To the many people who devoted so much of their time and talent to the creation of this bulletin, may I express a grateful "well done!"

William C. Kahl
State Superintendent of Public Instruction

Introduction

The Role of Social Studies in Education

For years, many educators have been concerned with the need to describe objectives in specific terms. Some time ago, Ralph Tyler and others identified three broad areas of educational objectives: (1) knowledge, (2) skills and processes and (3) values. In their two-volume work, **Taxonomy of Educational Objectives**, Benjamin Bloom, David R. Krathwohl and others attempted to develop a more precise and comprehensive system of categorizing educational objectives: (1) knowledge, (2) skills and agreed entirely with such statements, especially in regard to their nomenclature, but planning carefully and developing purposeful activities in education are generally accepted.

Tyler's three broad educational objectives listed above can be found in any effective social studies program. "Knowledge" in the social studies concerns matters such as the nature of man, the nature of the world, the heritage of the past and the totality of contemporary social life. "Skills and processes" in the social studies involve the development of those skills employed by social scientists. They would include reading, writing, map usage and other data collecting techniques as well as processes such as hypothesis formation and testing. "Valuing" in the social studies includes helping pupils to: (1) recognize the social values of our society, (2) clarify their own structure of values and (3) reconcile value conflicts.

Each area of the educational program has its unique problems and social studies is no exception. Yet, reflection upon such "problems" indicates positive opportunities. For example:

1. Much of the subject matter of social studies courses is constantly changing. On the one hand, this presents a problem in that it requires continuing professional growth. On the other hand, the social studies class can take on "life-like" characteristics because life too is constantly changing.
2. Societies generally attempt to transmit their culture or way of life to their young people. The tendency to perpetuate the status quo reflects the aspiration of all societies toward self-preservation. In "progress oriented" United States, the school is also expected to assist in the change and improvement of the culture. Obviously, this is a role which is self-contradictory, and one that can present problems and opportunities for the classroom teacher.
3. While the pupil must prepare to function effectively as a member of both primary and secondary groups, he must also be able to attain personal autonomy. "Socializing" and "individualizing" are at opposite ends of a spectrum. However, pupils must see a democratic society as a reconciliation between "socializing" and "individualizing." To some extent social studies education is fraught with paradoxes, yet these can be used to make the social studies class dynamic and "reality oriented."

Social Studies Education in the 1960's and 1970's

The history of American education reveals a steadfast faith in progress. In spite of changes that have come about, educators have never been satisfied and have continually sought greater improvements. The demand for improvements was stronger in the late '60's than in any other single period in our nation's history, and it appears that this trend will continue into the 1970's. The "ferment in the social studies" reflects the general tenor of our times.

The rising expectations of different groups within our society for or against change have

also encouraged searching re-assessment of traditional social studies programs. Some people have unlimited faith in education as the solution to any and all social problems. They ask, in a sense, "Why don't the social studies get with it?" Others decry the changes in traditional curriculum and seek preservation of the familiar. Thus, prodding comes from both liberal and conservative forces.

Although they seek different ends, all forces would employ the school program as their means. Contrasting views are an integral part of the "now" generation. Modern man sits in his living room and watches instantaneous television broadcasts of political or sports events taking place thousands of miles away. Modern media can provide an abundance of stimuli today and modern man commands greater numbers of options in pleasure, education and work. Americans casually accept rather than marvel at such wonders as moon walking and computerized data processing systems. Swift solutions of problems and immediate gratification of desires are often taken for granted in modern life. It is hardly surprising then that critics often expect curriculum workers and teachers to update social studies overnight.

The maturing social sciences and the wide dissemination of their findings have provided insights to help people better understand the contemporary scene. These findings have contributed to the desire to upgrade social studies curriculum as soon as possible.

Knowledge, Processes and Values in the New Social Studies

It was in the climate described above that the State of Wisconsin Social Studies Committee began deliberations in 1962 which led to the publication of **A Conceptual Framework for the Social Studies.** This document appeared in 1964 and in a revised edition in 1967. It has been enthusiastically received by social studies teachers and curriculum developers throughout Wisconsin and the nation as a whole. The Committee recognizes that the **Framework** deals directly with just one objective of social studies education – knowledge, and that it touches on such things as processes and values only implicitly. This realization has led this group of Wisconsin educators to prepare **Knowledge, Processes and Values in the New Social Studies.** The Committee hopes that this bulletin will give social studies educators greater insight into both the ends and means of social studies education.

KNOWLEDGE

Part I

Knowledge in the New Social Studies

Overview

The development of curriculum and instruction is ordinarily built upon three basic considerations: (1) The nature and demands of society; (2) The nature of knowledge; and (3) The nature of learners and the learning process.

The forces of change in all aspects of living and working have created a new imperative for the schools in their task of educating students. This imperative is that students must become more knowledgeable about the conditions, problems and realities surrounding them, and must, at the same time, become more skillful in the application of knowledge. Satisfying this demand is complicated because change occurs so rapidly that new knowledge confronts man even before he can understand the past. Besides the linear explosion of knowledge, combinations of new and old knowledge give the knowledge explosion a multi-dimensional characteristic which compounds the problem further. With each passing year, we can assume that a smaller proportion of man's total knowledge will be learned. Social studies knowledge must be viewed not only as a product but also as a tool to be applied toward the solution of personal and social problems in a world of constantly accelerating rates of change.

In the time allocated for social studies in the schools, it is crucial that students acquire the most reliable, significant and transferable units of knowledge and thought – concepts, generalizations and theories -- since these units transform, compress and organize experience and provide a necessary part of the framework for thinking. Students must then master the most significant concepts, generalizations and theories of social studies as well as develop reflective skills to learn more, to test what they learn, and to apply what they learn to social and personal problems.

While present educational practice tends to be dominated by the notion that intelligence is a single kind of ability which can be expressed as an I.Q. score, a re-examination of this assumption has led some to describe intelligence in terms of multiple abilities, each of which is amenable to improvement through instruction. Developmental stage theory suggests that the child passes through three periods in his cognitive development. The Bruner hypothesis that any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development is taken here to assume not only the use of concepts that the child can understand, but that the learning experience be appropriate to his stage of cognitive development. The Con-

ceptual Framework* provides a curriculum organization for the social studies consisting of selected concepts and generalizations from the various social science disciplines related by grade level to approximate stages of cognitive development. These units of knowledge furnish a substantive element for the progressive development of structure in the social studies.

Social studies education is concerned with: (1) The concepts, generalizations and theories of a discipline (i.e., a conceptual framework); and (2) The methods and procedures utilized by scholars in developing or adding to these fundamentals. To achieve the fullest understanding of this conceptual-cognitive curriculum, teachers need to analyze cognitive process, products, and teaching strategies. Although the unique nature of each social science is recognized, the reflective method described here is appropriate for all social inquiring and explanation.

*See Appendix A.

Teaching Intellectual Abilities and Skills

Teaching social knowledge is an important function of social studies education. Although social studies teachers are concerned with psychomotor skills and with values and attitudes, many of their educational objectives and much of their instructional time and effort are cognitive in nature. Social studies educators and laymen generally agree that pupils should have knowledge of topics such as United States history, American government and politics, Western heritage, non-Western cultures; and capitalism, communism and socialism. Social studies educators also agree that their students should become proficient in thinking processes which include "critical thinking," "analysis," "inquiry," "problem solving" or "reflection."

This concern with knowledge, intellectual abilities and skills suggests that attention should be given to cognitive learning and teaching practices in the social studies. The selection and use of materials, the conduct of instructional activities and the nature of evaluation will all be influenced by the teachers' notions of what knowledge is, how it is learned and how it is used.

Part I of this bulletin concentrates on the learning of more abstract, transferable and useful kinds of content comprised of concepts, generalizations and theories rather than the learning of specific facts and terminology by rote. This relatively abstract kind of subject matter becomes meaningful as it is related to what the student already knows, and as the student uses knowledge to explain reality. This part of the bulletin describes a range of strategies for teaching the various kinds of abstract knowledge and outlines approaches to evaluating students' mastery of them. It is intended to help teachers plan more effectively for the teaching of conceptual content and to help the social studies coordinator or local social studies curriculum committee deal with the important issue of designing a social studies program that introduces and develops knowledge at an ever-increasing level of sophistication. The basic notion here is that there is a relationship between how knowledge is classified (concepts, generalizations, etc.) and the teaching strategies used in the classroom. For example, the concept of change may be introduced in kindergarten and further developed as the students mature. However, teaching change as a concept per se can only have limited utility – that of concept development. To increase the students' knowledge of change, change must also be dealt with at higher levels of sophistication.

The principal kinds of knowledge dealt with here are labeled concepts, generalizations and theories. This system of labels is consistent with most literature about knowledge. These elements of knowledge can be related to each other and to facts and attributes in structures of knowledge as illustrated in Figures 1, 2 and 3.

Figure 1

Price Determination Theory in a Competitive Market

[The amount (of a good) supplied to the market will vary directly with the price;
The amount demanded will vary inversely with the price.]

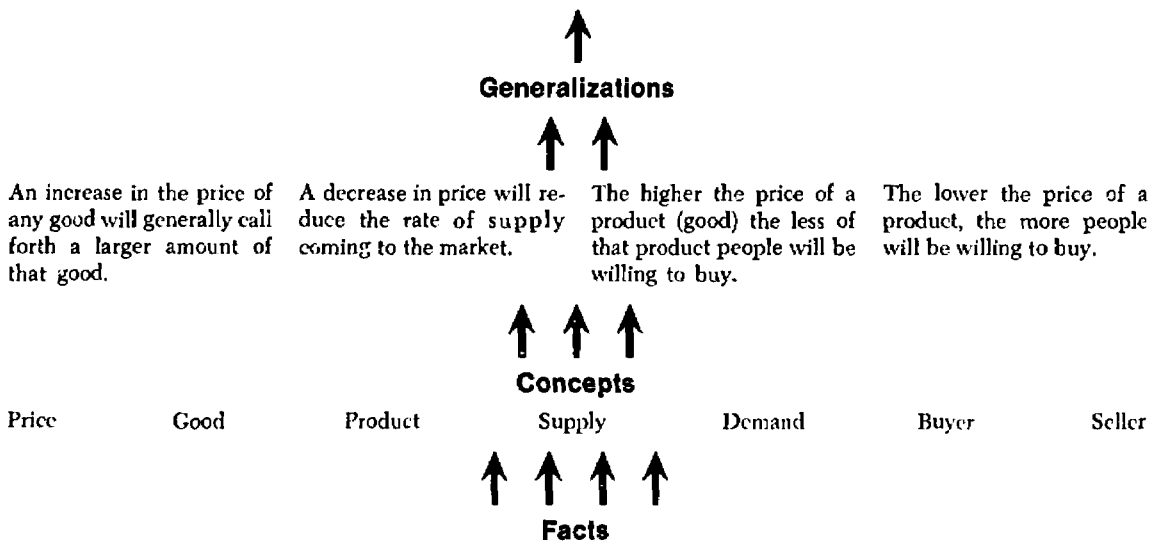
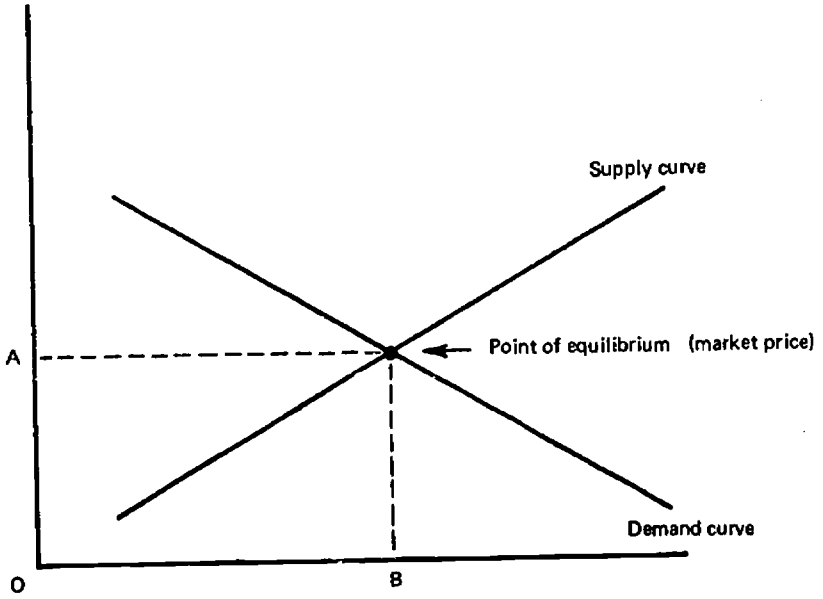


Figure 2

Price Determination

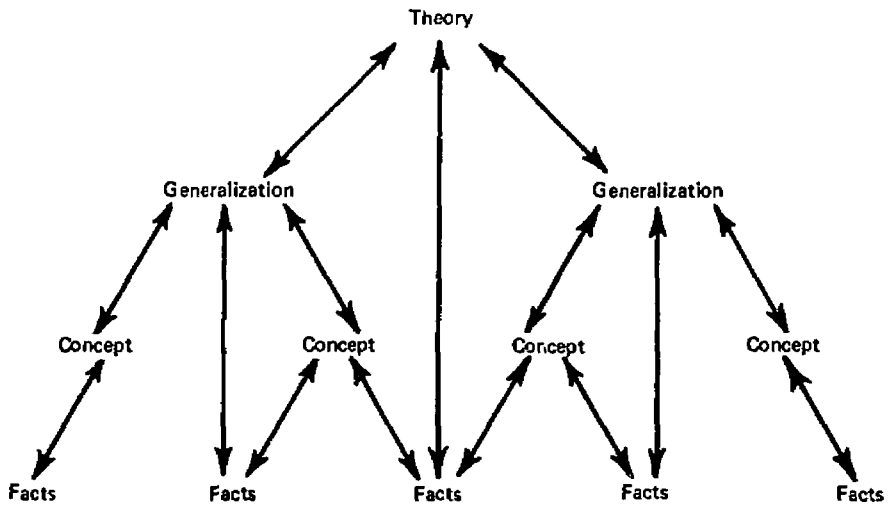


OA = Price
OB = Number of units that will be sold at OA price

Each kind of knowledge includes in its meaning those elements of knowledge at the lower levels, and each lower level supports the meaning of the higher levels. Each kind of knowledge has characteristics which distinguish it from the others and influence its relative position in the structure.

Figure 3

An Example of Interrelatedness of Knowledge



The diagram of the interrelationship of kinds of knowledge represented in Figure 3 is an admitted over-simplification of this idea. The reader will recognize that there can be differences in the complexity of entire structures. For example, there are concepts which are more sophisticated than some generalizations. In any graphic presentation of knowledge one arbitrarily builds a structure. This structure is useful only if it serves to help one sense the interrelatedness between given elements. Different psychologists might opt for different names for the elements, or even indicate that all knowledge is at the "concept level"; it is simply a matter of complexity of different concepts.

The above is recognized. However, the thesis here is that knowledge is part of the "product" which teachers teach, and a more thorough insight of knowledge is one prerequisite to meaningful instruction and learning.

Psychologically, theories, generalizations and concepts are a person's subjective, internalized understanding, but each can be represented in a communication and demonstrated in observ-

able outward behaviors. The following paragraphs deal with the nature and teaching of concepts, generalizations and theories.

Concepts

In social studies education, a concept is a categorization of things, events, or ideas; a convention; a carrier of meaning. It can be assumed that everyone's conception of a category may be somewhat different. The teacher should bring his students to anawareness that concepts are based on some agreed-upon attributes, while, at the same time, they may vary among individnals. Concepts are useful for many reasons. They aid in communication, they serve as tools for thinking, and in an era characterized by change and rapid growth in knowledge, concepts serve to give meaning and order to reality. The following explanations of attributes, classes and symbols will be useful to describe concepts.

Attributes

Attributes are distinguishable characteristics or properties of things, events, or ideas providing features that can be noted as the same, similar, or different. A mountain, for example, has the features of being big and natural. A city is characterized as being man-made. A stone has the properties of being small and natural, a ring those of being small and man-made.

Some attributes are based on fact in that they are concrete information that can be verified from reports of others or through direct observation. Other attributes are based on values or form established by social convention. Recurring themes is a feature of form that distinguishes classical music. Being man-made is an example of a characteristic of music that is based on fact.

We perceive attributes with varying levels of awareness. Some attributes seem more salient than others, while others which are commonly used might not be obvious. For example, when people are asked to explain the differences between dogs and cats, they readily mention attributes like the cat's whiskers and the dog's bark. Only after considerable effort do they state characteristics like the shape of the forehead or the typical gait when running. Yet if they were given such features alone, they could tell which were those of the dog and which those of the cat.

Classes

Classes are groupings of things, events, or ideas with the same or similar attributes. Knowledge of such classes or categories is common and useful. People are catergorized by attributes of gender, occupation, kinship, age and interests. Living things are sorted as plants or animals, mammal or reptile, bird or fish, domestic or wild. Oversimplifications, such as liberal or conservative politicians, white, black, or yellow races abound in everyday conversation and many may be characterized as stereotypes — groupings with attributes based partly on fact but which are essentially false, and more emotional than substantive. Man by nature classifies practically everything according to sets of attributes, and that which defies ready classification confuses, mystifies or frightens him.

Categories are based on one or several key attributes; while classifiable phenomena have something elementary in common to qualify for inclusion under a given heading, they also possess wide differences within their general categories. For example, a religious ceremony, a law, a building and a football game can all be grouped together so far as they share the attributes of being man-made and based on learned behavior; but they are not similar in other respects. Wind, a river, a mountain and migration of swallows differ in many attributes, but they can be put in the single class of things that are natural and not learned. Things in this group would be excluded from the first because they do not share the distinguishing attributes of that class, even though some members of the two classes may share other features insofar as the migration and the game are both complexes of behavior.

Typically, each class is a part of a conceptual system in which larger classes are divisible into smaller subclasses. The two classes considered

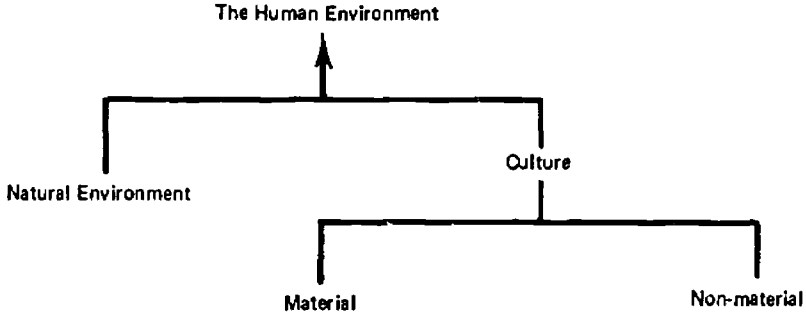
in the above paragraph, for example, might be subdivisions of the class of things found in man's environment. The class of man-made, learned things could in turn be subdivided into material things (like the building) and non-material things (like the game, law and ceremony).

Symbols and Terms

Each class can have a symbol which identifies the class and its members. The symbol is most often a word or group of words but it could also be a gesture, number, picture, character or mark. Whatever it is, the symbol serves as a convienent way to communicate about the class. The example of the bird migration, river, wind and mountain group could be labeled "natural environment," and we refer to the group of man-made, socially learned things as "culture." Both groups together could be named "the human environment." Within the culture category, the material things like the building could be named "artifacts" and the non-material phenomena like the ceremony "non-material culture." These interrelated classes represented by their symbols can be illustrated as in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Symbols in a Class System



Examples and Non-examples

Examples are members of a particular class, things that have the distinguishing attributes of the category. Non-examples are things which either do not have the key class attributes or have other attributes which exclude them from a given class. For example, highways and language are examples of cultural things; valleys and climate are not.

A concept, then, is the abstract body of meaning a person associates with a category or class, with members of the class and with the symbol for the class. A concept is a way of giving unity to diverse elements within a class. The concept

of culture, for example, is one's awareness of attributes shared by cultura things in general, rather than of the specific attributes of particular members of the class, such as language, a religious ceremony or a city.

Each person becomes aware of attributes from experiences such as hearing discussion of a category of things or noting examples of the class. A student who reads that a sociologist studied culture when he observed urban ghetto housing, values, morals and family structure will develop a concept of culture quite different from that of the student who hears a conversation linking culture with opera, Shakespeare, tuxedos and champagne. From the same experience two students may well associate different attributes. For example, if the students consider the life-ways of New Guinea headhunters in a study of culture, one student may link the attributes "bizarre" and "undesirable" with culture to the exclusion of other features while another student may learn attributes like "learned" and "diverse."

If someone perceives concept as only a private, subjective awareness of attributes not all of which may be communicated, another person cannot directly observe or evaluate that person's understanding or meaning. Education cannot progress in such a situation. In social studies education, concepts need to be representable openly and reliably in definitions which explain relevant key attributes. In this manner, students' understandings of concepts can be developed and evaluated through communication. If a student can define or explain culture in his own words, for example, there is some evidence that the student has some understanding of the concept. His demonstration of greater understanding may come from behavior like the following:

Kinds of Outward Behavior that Show Knowledge of a Concept	Examples using the concept of culture
Given a new group of examples and non-examples of concepts, students will be able to identify examples and non-examples of the concept (classification).	Given a drawing or description of a community scene, students will be able to identify cultural and natural features.
Given a new problem in which knowledge of the content is useful but not specified, students will use the concept to solve the problem (application).	Given pictures or descriptions of different shelters in the same natural environment and asked why different groups build different shelters, students will include the concept of culture in their explanations.
Given motivation, students will be able to find or give examples of the concept not studied in class (synthesis).	If told to imagine a visit to a strange land, students will be able to describe material and non-material cultural features they might find there.

Generalizations

A generalization is an attempt to derive a general principle from particulars. It is a statement developed to show the relationship between or among concepts. It can be assumed that each person's understanding of such a relationship may vary. A generalization involves classes or concepts rather than individual members or examples and constitutes an assertion that a relationship exists between or among the concepts. Statements commonly called principles, hypotheses and scientific laws are often communications of generalizations as they are defined here.

The statement, "cultures change through innovation and diffusion," is an example of a gen-

eralization, one which links the concepts of culture, change, diffusion and innovation, postulating a relationship between them.

A generalization might be considered a kind of complex concept made up of the attributes of the component concepts and the relationship between them, and differs in degree from concepts as discussed earlier. It is a higher-level abstraction with its own meaning and is greater than the sum of its parts – the concepts included. It demands an awareness of the relationship between its constituent concepts. Since a generalization is based on inference or reasoning and not only on the classification or association upon which the concept is based, it is more compelling than the concept because it can be tested for truth and validity. Being somewhat arbitrary, concepts can be judged different or similar, but not true or correct. If people can agree on the meaning of concepts in a generalization, however, they can test the generalization by examining appropriate evidence and by reasoning.

Symbols and Communications

Like concepts, generalizations can be represented in communications by symbols and terms. Some generalizations are referred to or named by symbols. "Gresham's law" and "the principle of diminishing returns" name some relatively well-known generalizations from economics. The example of the generalization about cultures changing discussed above could be referred to with a symbol like "the rule of constant cultural change."

Communications for generalizations are typically statements of the relationship among concepts. The statement, "cultures change through innovation and diffusion," is also a representation of the generalization illustrated above. "Cheap money drives out dear money," is a communication of Gresham's law. Such communications, of course, contain terms representing the concepts involved in the generalization. They are verbalizations of the generalizations which are useful if persons associate adequate bodies of attributes with the terms representing the concepts used.

Generalizations can be illustrated and tested by examining circumstances or cases in which examples of the concepts involved in the generalization are found. There are positive and negative instances in which the relationships asserted by a generalization appear to be true, false, or only partially true. The replacement of silver-bearing coins by non-silver-bearing coins, for example, is a positive or true case of Gresham's law. The two kinds of coins both remaining in circulation would be a negative case. Changes in the British colonies between settlement and the American Revolution are positive cases of the generalization that cultures always change. Had there been no inventions and no borrowing of cultural traits from Indians, French, or Spanish in the colonies, this relationship between culture and change would be a negative case of the principle of constant cultural evolution.

Overt Behaviors

Generalizations, like concepts, are essentially internalized understandings. Verbalizing the relationship gives some evidence of knowledge, but students' mastery is better demonstrated to others through observable behaviors, such as the following:

Kinds of Outward Behavior that Show Knowledge of a Generalization	Examples using the generalization that "all cultures change constantly"
Given new cases, students will be able to identify positive or negative cases (classification).	Given descriptions of an old way of life and a new way of life in a community, students will be able to list instances of cultural change evident from the descriptions.
Given a new problem in which knowledge of the generalization is useful but not specified, students will use the generalizations to solve the problems. (application)	If asked whether it is likely that a specified way of life like that of the Hopi Indians has not changed for a century and why or why not, students will use the generalizations among their reasons.
Given motivation, students will be able to create unique cases of the generalization. (synthesis)	If asked to describe what a known community may be like twenty years later, students will include in their descriptions a number of cultural innovations and/or diffusions.

Theories

Now that concepts and generalizations have been defined and described, let us consider the cognitive representation that interrelates groups of generalizations and which we arbitrarily term theory. A theory is a representation or communication which interrelates a number of concepts and generalizations in an assemblage with an identity and meaning of its own. The component generalizations and concepts fit together in a pattern so that they complement and add meaning to each other. The theory, as defined here, is the most abstract knowledge in a particular structure, being the most inclusive, furthest removed from the specific facts or conventions on which the structure is based. Theories find their greatest utility in explanation.

Theories include several kinds of commonly encountered abstractions. Explanations, such as Darwin's evolution of species and theses like r's frontier thesis, are common theories ined here. Systems, such as the political system; creeds, such as Christianity; myths, such as the Protestant ethic; and operational theories, such as that for teaching knowledge as put forth in this paper may be considered theories. Each is a system comprised of interrelated concepts and generalizations.

Such theories are not often known and used consciously and thoroughly as a physician uses a "model" of human physiology to diagnose illness or as space scientists use a system of physical principles to put a satellite in orbit. Part of a theory may be used when people employ ideas from a religious creed to explain some of its aspects, but ignore or neglect others. Theories may often be used as a set of operational assumptions about patterns of behavior but never conciously defined or verbalized. For example, every socialized adult has an operational model (either conscious or unconscious) of social structure. In each group, institution and gathering in which he finds himself, he seeks out his appropriate status and role and follows the appropriate norms and social pro-

cesses. He is aware of a set of such ideas because he consistently uses them, but he probably would not or could not verbalize them without a great deal of introspection and analysis. He certainly would not name the concepts and generalizations of social structure as a sociologist would, but he probably uses them just as effectively in his daily routine.

A theory could be regarded as a highly complex concept with the several generalizations and concepts in the theory providing a maze of attributes, but it doesn't possess the characteristics of concepts as developed above. It is more complex and abstract than bodies of attributes associated with whole categories. It is not derived from the association of attributes of fact or convention but rather from the abstract relationship of groups of concepts and generalizations. Like the generalization and unlike the concept, the theory can be tested for truth and validity by determining, for example, whether predictions made according to the theory are realized, whether it is demonstrable or whether it agrees with invariable law.

Symbols and Communication

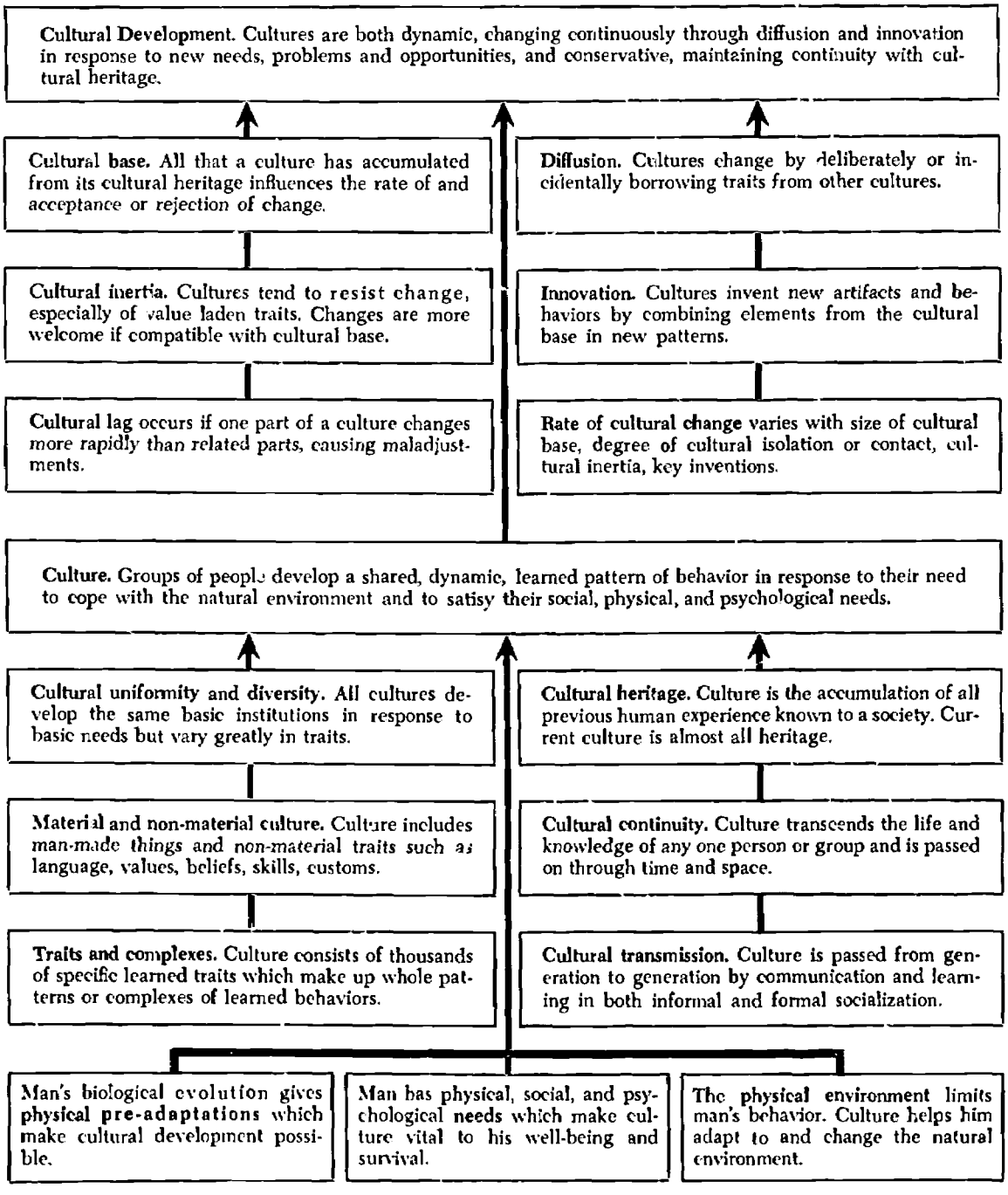
Similar to concepts, theories can be named by symbols which are usually words or groups of words. The theory communicated in Figure 5 is labeled Theory of "Cultural Development." More familiar are the names of theories such as the atomic theory, economic determinism, laissez-faire capitalism, existentialism or the new politics.

As with concepts and generalizations, the meaning of theory can be represented in a communication by graphic representations, such as a model of the solar system, or in a diagram, chart or simulation. Whatever form the communication takes, it must represent the key concepts in the theory and state or imply the multiple relationships among concepts and generalizations that comprise the theory.

Key concepts in the theory of Cultural Development (Figure 5) are represented by bold face symbols; generalizations are stated in the boxes. The lines connecting the boxes represent the relationship among the ideas, the more specific ideas at the bottom supporting those above and the more abstract ideas at the top including or subsuming the meaning of those below.

Each model involves a certain set of circumstances which combine to establish the situational context in which the theory may be learned or tested. The major concepts and generalizations in a theory can be identified by its application to a specific situation. For example, the changes in Japan since World War II or the history of ancient Egyptian civilization are situations for the theory of cultural development represented in Figure 4. The patterns of life in Harlem or rural Kansas are situations for a theory of social organization. How people make a living in Saudi Arabia or Great Britain are situations for the theory "economic system." In each of these examples of theories, the major concepts and generalizations could be sought and how they are functionally interrelated could be examined.

Figure 5
Theory of "Cultural Development"



t inclusive and abstract ideas are at the top. Lower ideas support the more abstract levels. Major concepts n in bold face type.

Overt Behaviors

The following are some observable behaviors by which students could show their understanding of a theory:

Kinds of Outward Behavior Showing Understanding of the Theory	Examples using the theory of cultural development
Students will be able to identify or find situations of the theory and to identify major components in the situations (classification).	In studying ancient Mediterranean cultures, students will be able to identify situations showing cultural development and to identify examples of component generalizations and concepts.
Given a new problem in which knowledge of the theory is necessary but not specified, students will use the theory to solve the problem (application).	Given a known culture and a plan to help the people develop economically, students will use the theory in listing reasons why or why not aspects of the plan will work.
Given motivation, students will be able to create unique situations involving the theory (synthesis).	If asked to write a history of how an imaginary people developed their current way of life, the students will use the theory and its major components.

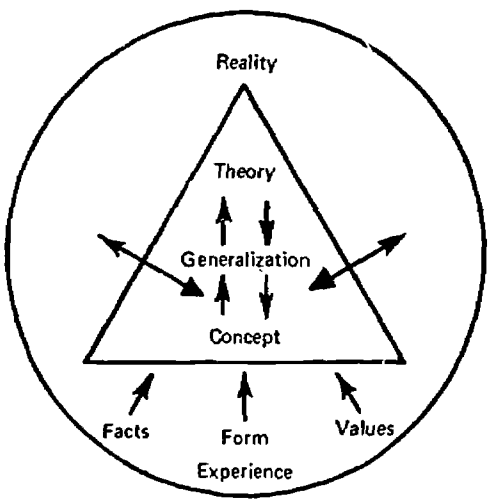
Structures of Meaningful Knowledge

Theories and their component generalizations, concepts and attributes form potentially meaningful structures of knowledge. These kinds of knowledge in the social studies can be interrelated in a logical pattern. Concepts are related to more abstract generalizations which in turn are related to the most abstract theories. Each kind of knowledge subsumes or includes the meaning of less abstract related ideas in its own unique meaning. Figure 6 illustrates this interrelationship of types of knowledge in a structure. (This model is an oversimplification of knowledge, and it should be stated that in some cases a concept may be more abstract than a generalization or a theory.)

Figure 6

A Structure of Knowledge

Interrelated Kinds of Knowledge



Examples of Each Kind of Knowledge

Theory

Circular flow of income

Generalizations

1. What people spend on consumption and investment depends primarily on the income they receive.
2. Changes in the level of total spending (private consumption and investment along with government spending) will result in changes in employment and real output.
3. Changes in the level of total spending will result in changes in the price level.

Concepts

Price, money, production, G.N.P., employment, real output, inflation, investment, spending, saving.

Such organization of knowledge is potentially meaningful since it has relatedness. It has internal meaningfulness in the way that the component elements of knowledge interrelate. It has external meaningfulness in the way it relates to the phenomena in examples, cases and situations. Thus the separate knowledge elements and the whole model are useful in such processes as classifying, explaining, predicting, analyzing, creating or judging. Psychologically, structures of knowledge are covert, internalized, subjective understandings or cognitive abilities which surface in overt behaviors. They may exist as operational structures implicit in a person's overt, learned behavior rather than as conscious, deliberately reasoned credos. Although the concepts and generalizations in the structures are closely tied to language symbols and structures, they need not necessarily be verbalized to be known. Although such a structure can be represented in an objective, logical communication as in Figure 6, everyone, students and teachers alike, is an individual perceiver and thinker. His covert undertakings at all cognitive levels cannot be overlooked.

Cognitive structures of students are multiple and varied. One may include different concepts and different generalizations in his models. Each person has a number of models for use in

different situations; some of them may be in part or wholly contradictory. They may also vary in completeness and complexity; a student at the 12th grade level would tend to have a greater number of more complex and abstract concepts in his model of social organization than he had at the sixth grade level.

Structures of knowledge should be regarded as dynamic and tentative in two ways. First, the individual student alters a structure with new experiences, if, for example, a new experience causes him to change the generalization and to add some attributes to component concepts. Also, more specific knowledge in a structure may be forgotten as its meaning is subsumed in more general understanding. Secondly, knowledge structures change and grow as cultures change and grow, and as researchers in a field argue and change concepts, generalizations and theories. Our knowledge of human behavior, for example, has grown and changed notably in the past few decades as anthropologists and psychologists developed new ideas, some of which have become quite widely known and accepted.

Viewing concepts, generalizations and theories as interrelated in structures of knowledge is important to an operational theory for teaching such knowledge. Structures suggest a way to classify subject matter. It also provides some elements and relationships that can be used in instructional strategies. The overt behaviors related to each kind of knowledge suggest ways to develop and evaluate student mastery of the abstractions. Figure 7 illustrates the interrelated elements that can be used in teaching the kinds of abstract knowledge.

Figure 7

Correlated Elements Useful in Planning Instruction and Evaluation of Kinds of Knowledge

Kind of Knowledge	Representative Communication	Behaviors Which Demonstrate Knowledge
Theory	Diagram Verbalization Model Simulation	Given some information about a situation, students can predict additional events or aspects in the situation.
Generalizations	Outline Statement Formula	Students can identify positive and negative cases.
Concepts	Definition Explanation Classification	Students can find or create new examples or non-examples.

Use of this operational scheme to classify knowledge for instructional purposes is not always easy and may sometimes necessitate a rather arbitrary point of view. One difficulty is that the manner in which any given knowledge is classified depends on its relationship to other knowledge. For example, as a concept, "change" may be regarded as a category of events with similar attributes but varies in its relationship to other concepts. Change itself may serve as an attribute of the concept of culture. Cultural change, the knowledge that all cultures change constantly, is by itself a generalization and yet could be treated as an attribute of the concept of culture.

Such difficulties may result in some initial confusion but they are certainly not insurmountable. The point taken here is that a system or organization, although arbitrary, is better than no system. Kinds of knowledge can be defined and interrelated in various structures with relative consensus and clarity. **A Conceptual Framework for the Social Studies in Wisconsin Schools** relates a number of concepts in a series of generalizations. There are also other published papers identifying knowledge structures in the social studies. With the help of such sources educators can identify major social studies concepts and generalizations.

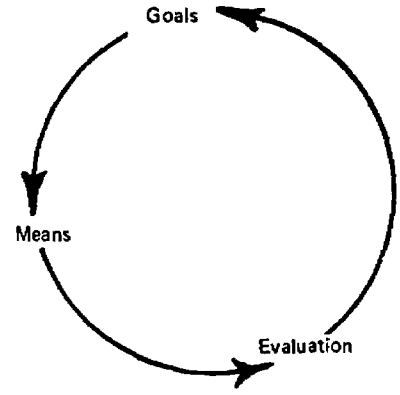
Strategies for Teaching Knowledge

An instructional strategy is simply a teaching plan. It may be a long-range scheme like a framework for a faculty to teach major ideas from social studies disciplines to students in a K-12 curriculum. Or it may be a more modest, shorter range design such as a plan for 9th grade teachers to teach a model in a particular unit or a plan for a teacher to introduce three new concepts to a 4th grade class.

Like other plans, an instructional strategy has three basic divisions of goals, means, and evaluation. These three sections of a plan operate in cycles of reciprocal influence. The nature of the goals influences the means which in turn affect the evaluation. The evaluation may cause adjustment of goals or means or both. The three divisions of the plan do not necessarily occur separately in the order of goals, means, or evaluation and may indeed operate simultaneously. For example, a plan may begin with a pretest assessment to help set realistic goals; it may call for constant adjustment of means and goals as evaluation is pursued continuously and periodically.

Figure 8

Interrelated Parts of an Instructional Strategy



A Basic Strategy

The success of strategies for teaching knowledge may depend upon accepting the attitude that students must internalize concepts, generalizations and theories. Such knowledge cannot be spoon-fed to students; they must develop awareness through experiences they themselves undergo. Teachers can provide the communications and content and guide the student experiences, but they cannot provide students with concepts, generalizations, or theories. These meanings must be realized by the students themselves.

The basic process by which students develop abstractions is meaningful association among language symbols and increasingly greater cognitive development. By interrelating new knowledge elements and matching them to previous-

ly learned understandings, students restructure and add to their cognitive system. Students may feel at times that a new abstraction is an insightful and sudden association. However, students typically develop abstractions through gradual assimilation of meaningful associations which occur through a number of experiences over an extended period. The educator's task is to design and use instructional strategies to provide such experiences.

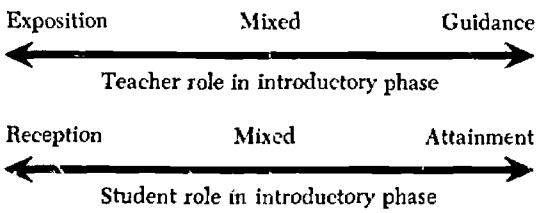
Before it can be taught, the operational theory of knowledge structure described above requires identification of the concepts, generalizations and theories. Secondly, it involves finding or developing content which consists of representative communications and relevant applications of the abstractions which the students can handle. Third, it suggests the statement of overt behaviors which utilize the content and demonstrate knowledge of the abstractions. Fourth, it depends upon structuring a series of student experiences with the content which will develop the overt behaviors and the related assimilation of the abstract knowledge.

The strategy involves three interrelated phases – introduction, development and evaluation. The introductory phase provides initial exposure to the abstraction, the developmental phase gives repeated experience with the idea in increasingly complex contexts and the evaluation phase assesses student performance with specified overt behaviors. The three phases are complementary and overlapping rather than exclusive. The developmental and evaluation phases may occur simultaneously or cyclically.

The basic strategy can be varied in a pattern ranging from student attainment to student reception. These patterns vary largely in the introductory phase and all require further practice with abstractions in a developmental stage. The attainment strategy is to lead students to discover the abstraction by associating knowledge elements. The reception strategy is to explain and illustrate the association of knowledge elements to students. The patterns of strategies can be viewed in a continuum as shown in Figure 9, with pure attainment at one end, pure reception at the other and mixed reception and attainment strategies in between. Few strategies will be one hundred percent attainment or reception; many will fall somewhere between the extremes of the continuum.

Figure 9

A Continuum of Cognitive Instructional Strategies



The differences between reception and attainment strategies lie essentially in the teacher and student roles. In the student reception strategy the teacher's role is exposition. Through a lecture, a reading, a film, or other media, the teacher can present a representative communication of the abstraction and explanations of how content illustrates the idea. The student role in reception should be regarded as complex; to succeed in reception, students must do more than sit and soak up ideas. They must receive communication symbols, decode the symbols, relate the meaning of the symbols to things they already know and realize for themselves the associations among knowledge elements newly communicated and previously known. Reception strategies succeed when students can thus make their own meaningful associations. The challenge to teachers is to use representative communications, explanations and applications so that students can make the associations embodied in the abstraction to be learned.

In the attainment strategy, the teacher's role is basically guiding student association of knowledge elements. The teacher may provide examples and uses or help students to find them. He may provide alternative hypotheses about

associations of knowledge elements for students to use or he may help students formulate and use their own hypotheses. The student role in attainment is essentially testing hypotheses and reaching conclusions about the relations among knowledge elements. The process may vary from an informal trial and error acceptance or rejection of alternatives to a structured testing of hypotheses.

The basic strategy of teaching abstractions through association of knowledge elements and the attainment and reception variations of strategy are illustrated below in brief descriptions of strategies to teach concepts, generalizations and theories.

Concept Teaching Strategy

Students can be taught to categorize examples and non-examples of concepts so that they come to associate the distinguishing attributes of the examples with the whole class and with the concept symbol. This strategy first requires identification of the concept symbol, of examples and non-examples which students can comprehend, and of overt behaviors which show knowledge of the concept. The strategy then involves structuring student experiences with the examples and non-examples so that students associate concept attributes with the concept symbol and can achieve the overt behaviors. Student experiences with examples can vary from attainment to reception.

The concept attainment strategy can be illustrated with a plan for teaching the concept of culture to primary students. The teacher decides to use familiar cultural things in communities as examples and familiar natural things in communities as non-examples. The teacher also decides students can show their understanding of culture by identifying or finding examples and non-examples as specified in these overt behaviors:

1. Given lists or drawings of natural and cultural things, students will be able to identify them as such.
2. Given pictures or descriptions of a community, students will be able to identify natural and cultural features.
3. Students will be able to find or draw pictures of or describe natural and cultural features in a community.

In the introductory phase of the attainment strategy the teacher begins by using an overhead project to show students' drawings in two columns labeled "A" and "B." (See Figure 10.) Column A has pictures of familiar cultural things like a bridge, flagpole and school building. Column B has pictures of familiar natural things like a tree, a river and the sun. Students are asked to offer opinions on ways the respective items in groups A and B are alike and on how items in Group A are different from those in Group B. The teacher gives no indication at this stage that student opinions offered are right or wrong.

The introductory phase continues with the teacher presenting additional drawings of familiar cultural and natural things in a community. As the teacher projects each new example or non-example, he asks students whether it belongs in Group A or Group B and why they think so. (See Figure 11.) When all pictures have been presented and grouped, students are asked for their final views on the differences between the two groups. A variety of examples and non-examples should lead students to reject opinions like "Group A is city things" and "Group B is country things" and to accept suggestions like "Group A is things man has learned to make" and "Group B is things not made by man." The teacher then verifies such hypotheses and provides the concept symbols by projecting the titles "Cultural: Done or Made by Man" and "Natural: Not Done or Made by Man" for the two columns of pictures. (See Figure 10.)

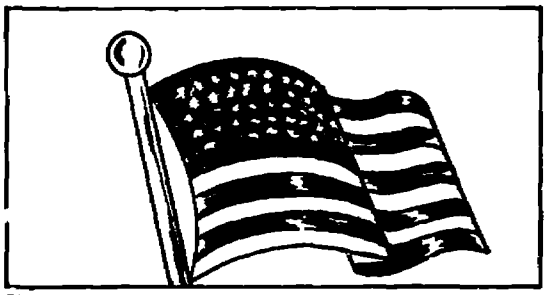
The introductory attainment is rounded out and reinforced by students compiling lists of other cultural and natural things found in their community. The whole attainment process has been one of grouping examples and non-examples and trying to distinguish key attributes of the concept. Although most students can

identify natural and cultural things in a community at the end of this phase, it must not be assumed that the concept has been developed. Much additional practice with identification of examples and non-examples in spaced and varied contexts is needed to develop association of attributes with the class and symbol "culture." This practice is provided in the developmental phase of instruction with activities such as the following:

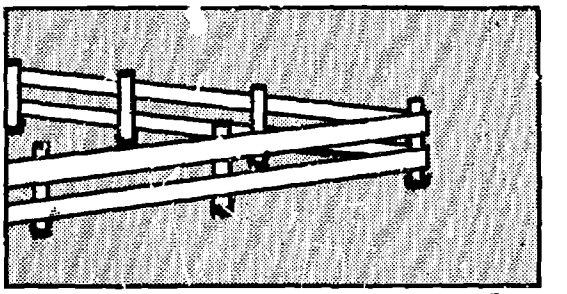
1. Present pictures of community scenes and have students identify natural and cultural features shown.
2. Select pictures from student textbooks and have the students name natural and cultural features depicted in the community scenes.
3. Prepare and use worksheets, one with small pictures of cultural and natural items and another with a single picture of a community scene. Students should circle cultural items only on the first sheet and list cultural and natural items on the other. (See Figures 11 and 12.)
4. Have students find or draw pictures of natural and cultural features of a community. Mount them on a bulletin board under appropriate headings.
5. Have students make maps, one showing natural features of the community, another showing cultural features, and a third showing both cultural and natural features.
6. Students could construct a model community with paper cut-outs showing natural and cultural community features.
7. Divide the class into two teams and line the teams up in two rows. The first students in each row must name a cultural item, the second a natural thing in the community, the third a cultural thing, etc., with turns alternating between the two teams. A student must sit down if he makes a mistake, repeats an item given earlier in the game, or cannot name an item in about 30 seconds. The team with all its members seated first loses the game.
8. Have students draw first what they think are important natural features for a good community and then what they think are important cultural features. Discuss the reasons for their selections of features.
9. Have students notice natural and cultural features on their way home and back to school and report on them in the next class.

Figure 10
Initial Grouping Of Examples And Non-Examples
In The Sample Concept Attainment Strategy

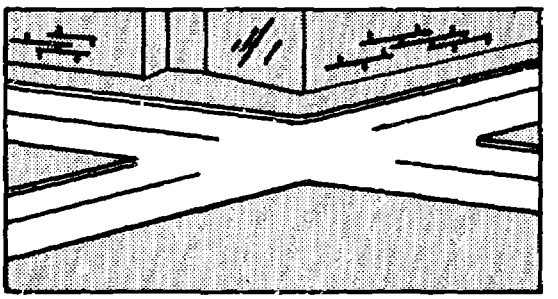
GROUP A



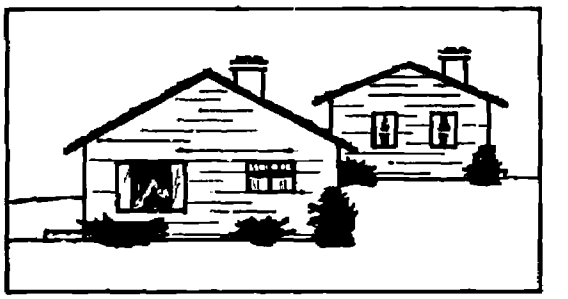
Flag



Fence

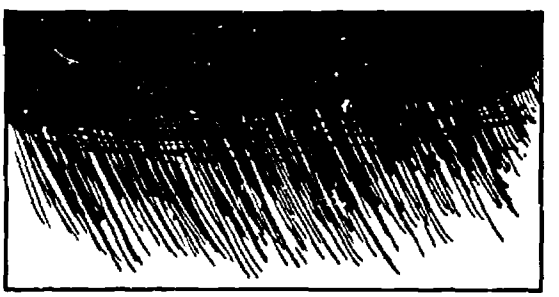


Streets

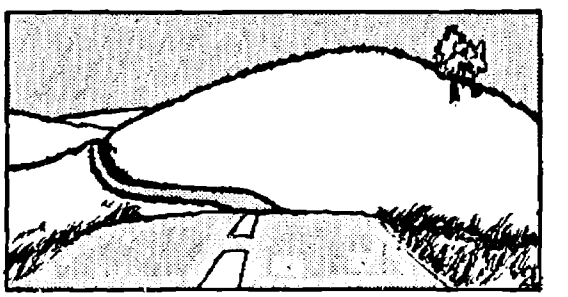


Houses

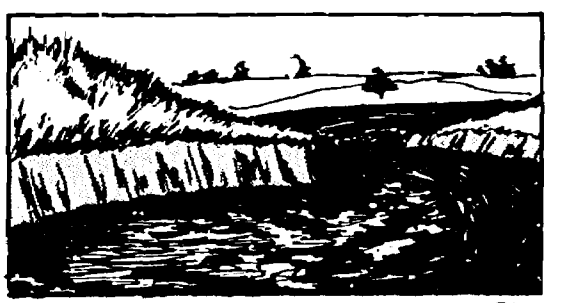
GROUP B



Rain

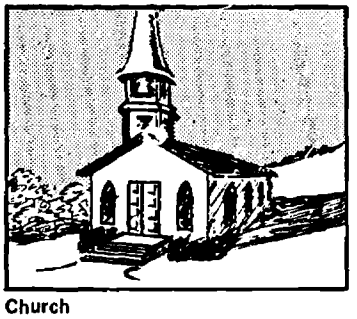


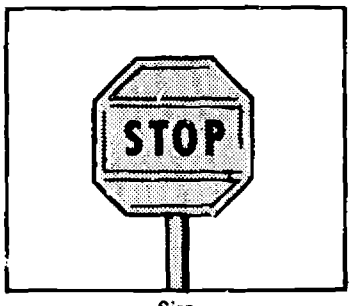
Hill



River

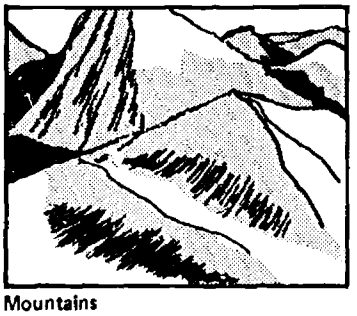
Figure 11
Additional Examples And Non-Examples For Use In The Sample Concept Attainment Strategy

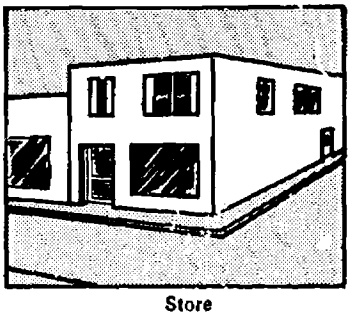

Church

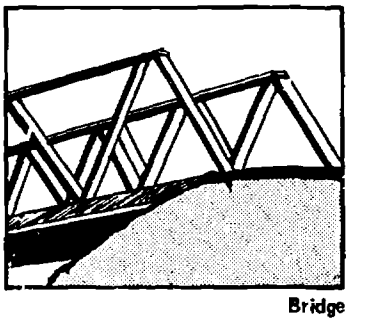


Sign

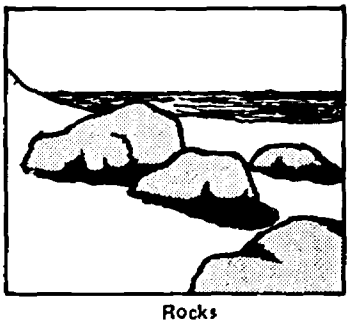

Lake

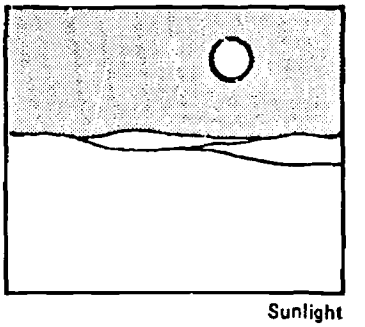

Mountains

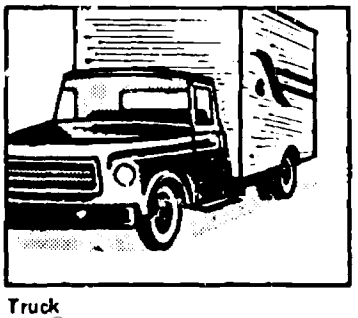

Store

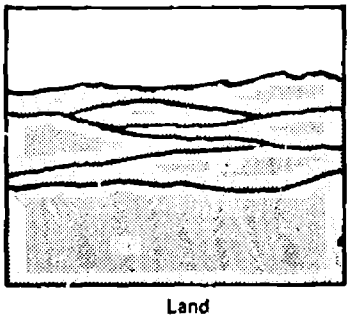

Bridge


Bushes


Rocks


Sunlight


Truck


Land

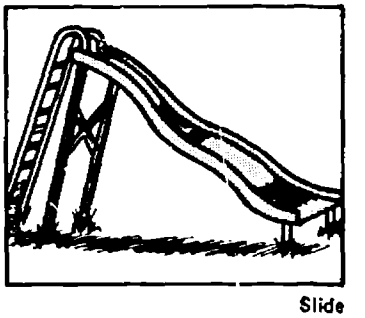
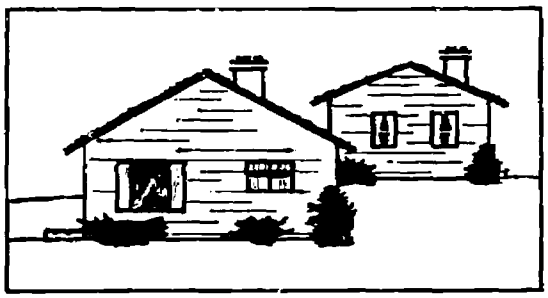
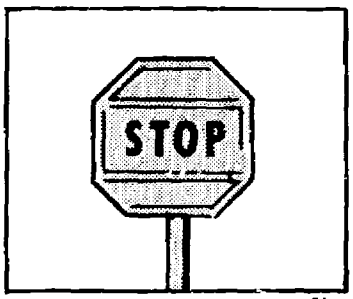

Slide

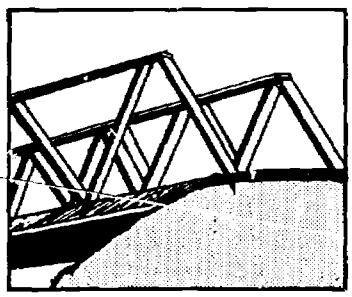
Figure 12
Organization Of Examples And Non-Examples For Use In The Sample Concept Reception Strategy



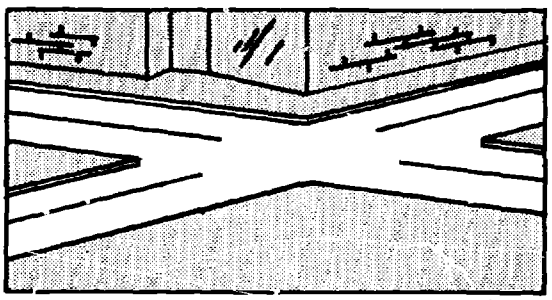
Houses



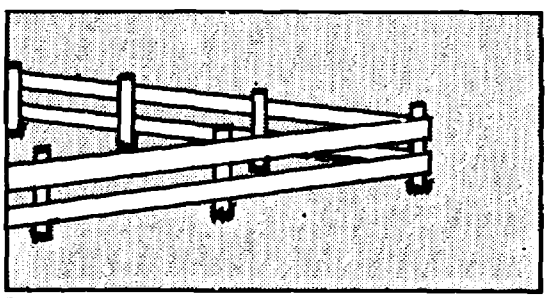
Sign



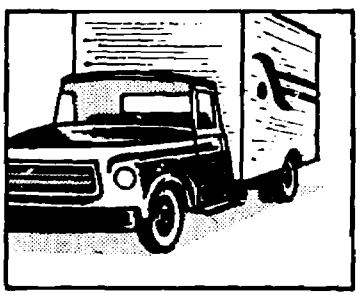
Bridge



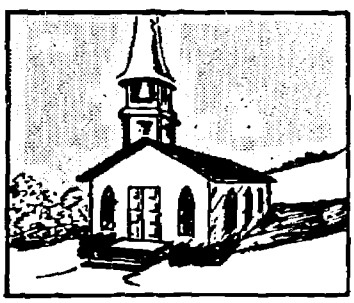
Streets



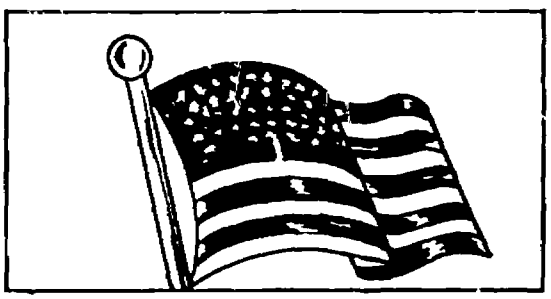
Fence



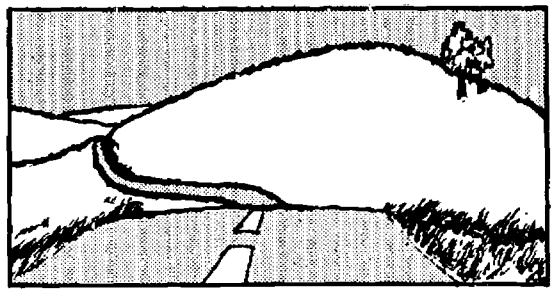
Truck



Church



Flag



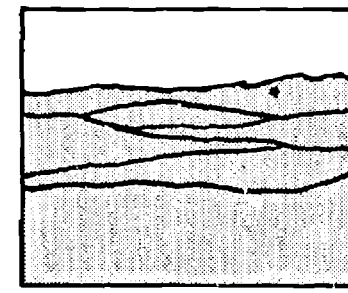
Hill

Lake

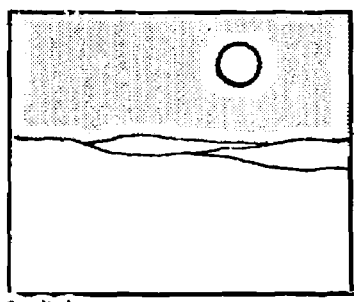
Bushes

River

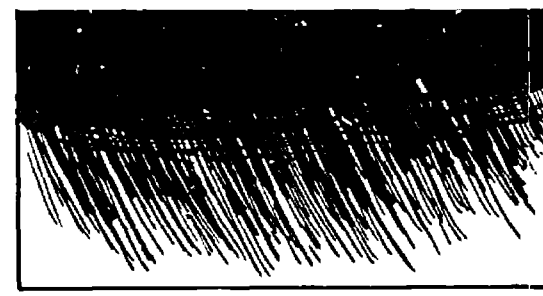
Trees



Land

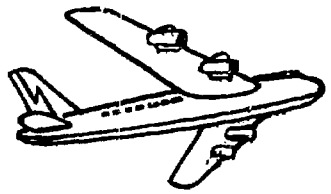


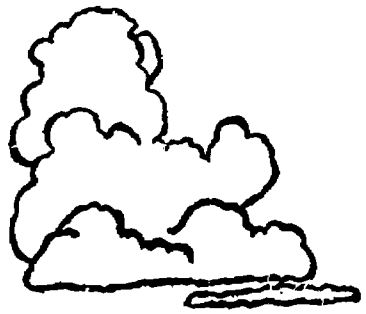
Sunlight

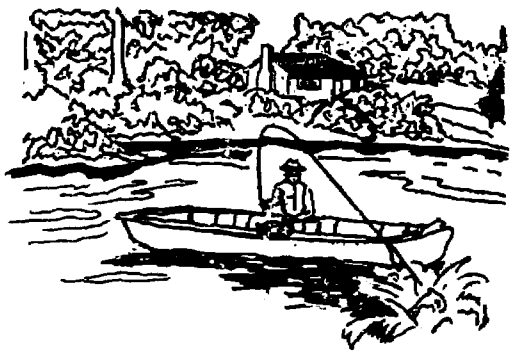


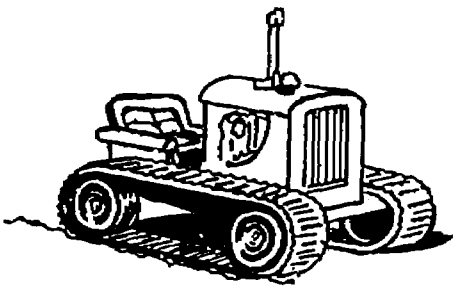
Rain

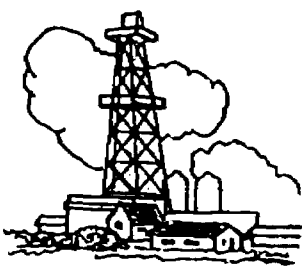
Figure 13
First Worksheet For Activity #3

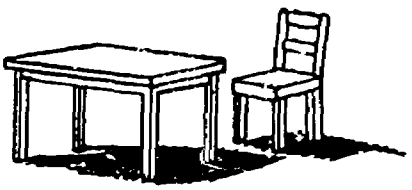












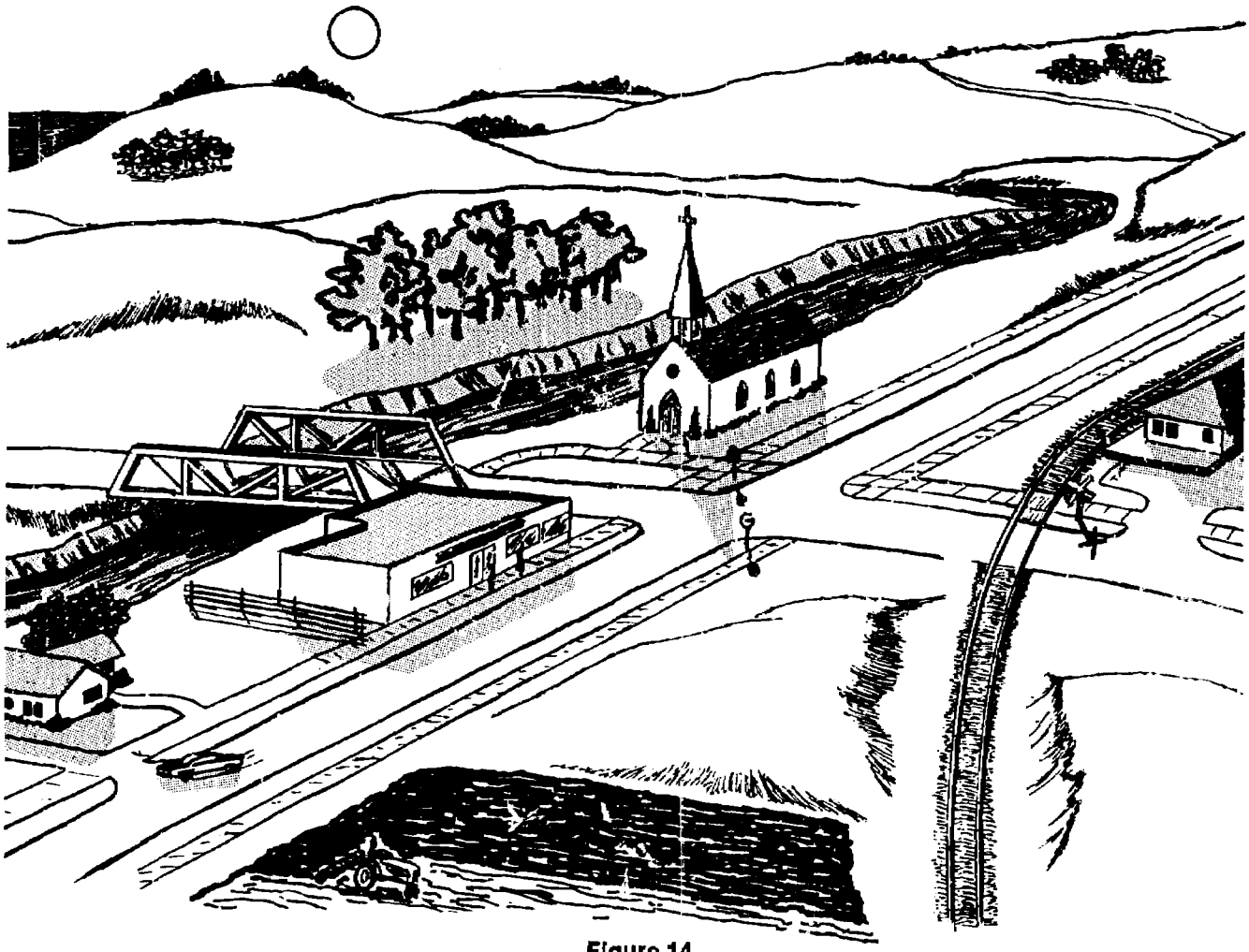


Figure 14
Second Worksheet For Activity #3

Natural	Cultural
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Through the developmental activities students learn and practice the three overt behaviors which show their knowledge of the concept of culture. In periodic evaluation activities like the following student mastery of these behaviors, student knowledge of the concept is measured:

1. Present a short written description of a community scene. Have students list natural and cultural features included.
2. Present a simple map or diagram of a community. Have students list the cultural and natural features shown.
3. Have students write a description or draw a community scene identifying natural and cultural features.

(Since work with the concept thus far involves only examples of material culture, it is important to note that augmentation of the concept is needed to add the attributes of non-material culture. The augmentation is accomplished through identification of examples of cultural behavior like speaking, reading, and believing in freedom and of non-examples of cultural behavior like sneezing, blinking and fear of falling.)

The concept reception strategy can be illustrated by comparison with the attainment strategy described above. The reception strategy uses the same content and media but involves different introductory teacher and student roles. The teacher first uses the overhead projector to show the two columns with the labels "Cultural: Done or Made by Man" and "Natural: Not Done or Made by Man" and defines the ideas of culture and nature. Then the teacher shows the students each picture and explains why it is cultural or natural and why it goes in one column or the other. The students watch, listen and assimilate the explanation and then compile the list of other natural and cultural things they might find in their community.

This introduction by reception involves the same knowledge elements as with attainment and can be highly effective if students are able to associate attributes with the class and sym- It is very important that either reception or attainment of concepts provide for grouping of examples and the association of attributes. It is also vital that the introduction by reception be followed by the same developmental and evaluation phases used with attainment.

Generalization Teaching Strategy

Students can develop generalizations by interrelating examples of concepts and/or concept symbols. Such a strategy requires preliminary identification or representative communications of examples which students can understand and of overt behaviors through which students can show knowledge of the generalization. The strategy then requires providing student experiences in which the generalization may be applied. As with teaching strategies to develop concepts, student experiences with content in assimilating generalizations can vary from attainment to reception.

A generalization attainment strategy is illustrated in the following example:

Sample Generalization Attainment Strategy For Intermediate Social Studies

A. Educational goal: Students will understand that major cities are usually located on major waterways, often at the junction of waterways.

B. Behavioral objectives:
   1. Given a map of a state, all students will be able to identify positive (and negative) cases of the generalization with 95% accuracy.
   2. Given an outline map of an unnamed state showing boundaries and water only, students will be able to indicate with 80% accuracy where five larger cities in the state are located.
   3. Given directions to draw a hypothetical area map with five major cities, students will draw all five cities on waterways, locating at least three at junctions of waterways.

C. Content: Positive (and negative) cases
   – Location of major cities in Wisconsin
   – Location of major cities in Ohio

- Location of large cities in Missouri
- Location of cities in the U.S.
- Location of hypothetical cities
- Location of cities in Georgia

D. Media
- Maps of Wisconsin
- Untitled outline map of Ohio waterways and boundaries (including Lake Erie)
- Transparency of map of Ohio
- Physical maps of Missouri
- U.S. political-physical maps
- Map of hypothetical area
- Untitled map of Georgia water and boundaries

E. Introductory activities:
1. The teacher provides each group of five students with a map of Wisconsin and asks how the maps show cities of 10,000 people or more. After students explain how such larger cities can be located, the teacher instructs each group to write on a paper the names of three such cities in eastern Wisconsin, three in the central part of the state and three in the western part. The teacher then instructs each group to discuss and write a rule about a way all nine cities they have selected are alike apart from size or population. The rule must be based on what they can tell from the maps. Then the teacher directs the groups to list the other larger cities that fit their rule and any which may not fit it. After finishing their work the groups report and compare their rules and cities located.
2. The teacher provides students with untitled outline maps of Ohio showing only waterways and boundaries and tells them to draw circles where they think the five largest cities in the state are located. Students individually or in small groups mark their maps accordingly. The teacher then projects a map of Ohio showing actual location of major cities. The students compare their maps with that projected. The teacher instructs students to count how many of the major cities on the projected map are not on waterways, how many are on waterways, and how many are at the junction of waterways.

F. Developmental activities:
1. The teacher refers small groups of students to a physical map of Missouri and instructs each group to decide where they would buy land to build a great city if they were pioneer settlers and to list reasons for their choices. Student groups make selections, write their reasons, report on and compare selections and rules. The teacher marks selections on a projected map and lists reasons on the chalkboard.
2. The teacher can ask students to locate on a U.S. map five cities of 10,000 inhabitants or more that are not located on a river, lake or ocean.
3. The teacher instructs students to draw maps of an imaginary country showing highways, railroads, cities, water and land features. Students draw and exchange maps and then criticize the location of other students' cities.

G. Evaluation activities:
1. The teacher gives students an outline map with eight cities on waterways and three not located on waterways and tells students to draw an "X" through any cities that someone may have put on the map to fool people but which really are not so located.
2. The teacher gives students an untitled outline map of Georgia with only water and boundaries and instructs them to draw circles where five large cities are likely to be located.
3. The teacher instructs students to draw a map with two rivers flowing into a large lake, one river flowing out of the lake to the ocean and five large cities.

The generalization reception strategy involves the presentation of a representative communication, and explanations of cases of the generalization, to students. It can be illustrated by comparison with the above example of an attainment strategy. The same overt behaviors,

cases and media are used in reception, but the teacher and student roles are different in the introductory phase of instruction. In the reception strategy the teacher first explains the rule that almost all major cities are located on waterways and offers some reasons why. He then shows students on a Wisconsin map three eastern, three central and three western cities of 10,000 people or more and explains how each satisfies the rule by being situated on a waterway. The students listen, watch and assimilate the explanation and then find on the map ten other Wisconsin cities which fit the generalization. The reception strategy then proceeds to the same developmental and evaluation phases as in the attainment strategy.

The developmental phase is vital to either approach. Both the reception and the attainment approach can be effective if they succeed in leading students to recognize for themselves the relationships among concepts. Both require the use of cases as well as of representative communications of the generalization.

Theory Teaching Strategy

Theory teaching strategy is inherently more difficult than concept and generalization teaching strategy. Because of the complex, abstract nature of theories, identifying their cognitive components and developing an effective pattern of instruction for them are more complicated and require more time, energy, material and imagination.

Students can be taught to identify theory components and to interrelate them in systems of ideas. The strategy requires preliminary identification of theory components and relationships among components, of one or more representative communications showing the assemblage of ideas in the theory, of situations in which the students can study the theory and of overt behaviors which demonstrate student knowledge of it. The theory teaching strategy then requires plans for student experiences which accomplish two interrelated goals: (1) knowledge of the theory components, and (2) knowledge of the interrelationship of components in the theory. In theory reception, students first experience the whole assemblage of ideas and then work with individual components and relationships. In theory attainment, students first have experience with theory components and then build and test the theory.

Theory reception requires two complementary phases: (1) an introductory advance organization, and (2) a developmental analysis of theory components in situations. The advance organizer consists of the presentation and explanation of a representative communication of the basic theory. The developmental analysis consists of identifying component concept examples and generalization cases in a number of theory situations.

A theory reception strategy can be illustrated with a plan to teach the theory of cultural development represented in Figure 5 to secondary students in a study of the evolution of western culture. The teacher first presents a chart of the theory along with a glossary of basic terms used in the theory. Students work to achieve preliminary overt behaviors such as ability to define the terms and explain the chart in their own words and to give examples of the concepts and generalizations of the theory in their own environment. Students may also read another representative communication of the theory in the form of a textbook chapter which explains cultural evolution. These procedures constitute the introductory advance organization stage of the strategy.

The developmental phase of the reception strategy consists of working with components of the cultural development model in studies in Sumerian, Egyptian, Greek, Roman and Western European histories. The teacher can lead students to identify theory components and the relationships among them in each situation. In the first three situations, students work with less demanding behaviors, such as: "if given a description of changes in a culture," and "being able to identify examples of diffusion and innovation." In the subsequent situations, students also work with more comprehensive behaviors involving many, if not all, theory components. For example, if students are given a description

of events in a culture, they will be able to use the theory to explain in their own words why the rate of cultural change is likely to increase, slow down, or remain about the same; or, if students are given knowledge of a cultural base and description of several innovations developed, they will be able to use the theory to explain in their own words why some of the innovations are more likely to be accepted by the culture.

The theory attainment strategy, like theory reception, requires two phases. The first phase of theory attainment is identification of theory components in a number of situations. The second phase is development and testing of the theory which assembles the theory components.

A theory attainment strategy can be illustrated with a different plan to teach the cultural development theory in a course in secondary history of western culture. In the first phase the teacher guides students in learning basic components of the theory. In studying Sumeria, students learn the three generalizations at the bottom of Figure 5. In studying Egypt, students relate the concepts of culture, cultural traits, cultural complexes, cultural heritage, cultural continuity and cultural transmission to unit content. In studying Greece, students also relate the ideas of cultural change, diffusion, innovation and cultural base to content. In developing these components of the theory the students achieve basic behaviors like being able to identify examples and non-examples of the concepts and cases of the generalizations in the unit content.

The teacher begins phase two of the illustrative theory attainment strategy (development and testing) at the beginning of the study of Roman culture by having groups of students list sets of rules that can be used to explain how and why Roman culture evolved. Student groups report and compare their sets of rules and make lists of the kind of evidence that would tend to support or disprove their rules. As they study Roman history, the students use the unit content as evidence to test their rules. At the end of the unit the students criticize the validity of the rules of cultural evolution, revise them, and each group subsequently uses its revised set of rules to predict ways that a Western European national culture has evolved and does a case study to test its predictions and the validity of its rules. In this second phase of the attainment strategy, students are developing complex behaviors like "being able to use the model to explain or predict cultural evolution in their own words."

Both theory reception and theory attainment require considerable time and effort. Both allow students to learn a theory by understanding its complex relationship in the contexts of several situations. Either approach can be highly effective if it leads students to make their own associations among components and situations.

Coordination of Strategies

While concept, generalization and theory teaching strategies have been discussed independently here, they would typically be coordinated or integrated in an actual course or unit strategy. Where theories are involved in a course or unit, the theories themselves suggest ways to correlate strategies. Attainment and/or reception of concepts and generalizations are necessary parts of theory attainment or reception.

Where no theory serves to organize strategy, other factors may suggest ways to correlate strategies. Clusters of concepts that can be taught in the same group of examples and non-examples can be developed in the same or in complementary strategies. The relation of some concepts to generalizations may suggest planning concept reception followed by attainment of generalizations or concept attainment as part of the reception of related generalizations. The subject matter, the instructional materials available, or the desire to teach a series of cognitive processes may also sometimes suggest correlations and sequences of cognitive instructional strategies.

PROCESSES

Part II

Processes in the New Social Studies

Because concepts, generalizations and theories are derived by man and because man both designs the observational system and selects and groups pertinent observations from the system, it is evident that if one is to understand and use concepts, generalizations and theories he must understand the processes employed in generating and testing this knowledge. Also, knowledge of these processes will aid in the development of a more efficient and effective teaching-learning situation.

As one considers any one of the following processes it becomes clear that there are many related sub-processes or skills*; e.g., map reading and data gathering, which are subsumed under each inquiry process.

These sub-processes may be tentatively arranged in a hierarchy. This arrangement may then serve as a starting point for inclusion of the processes in a social studies curriculum. Certain processes can and should be included in the curriculum prior to beginning an emphasis on concept or generalization development; other processes should be introduced much later. Once developed, a given sub-process or skill should be applied as it is needed throughout a student's learning experiences.

In subject fields such as mathematics, natural science and social studies, there is reason to suggest that common cognitive processes are, or can be, used even though the ideas mathematicians, natural scientists and social scientists consider, along with their methods of collecting, storing and retrieving data, are different.

Eleven major processes have been identified here which include the great majority of student activities appropriate for school experiences. The terms associated with these processes are:

- Observation
- Communicating
- Classifying
- Inferring
- Predicting
- Formulating models
- Measuring
- Interpreting data
- Formulating operational definitions
- Formulating questions and hypotheses
- Testing hypotheses

*See Appendix B

Observation. Observations can be made in a variety of ways using all of the senses. Where direct sense experience is not adequate for making needed observations, indirect methods are used. Objects and events may be observed with respect to many qualities and quantities. When observations are made in order to accumulate data from which inferences will be drawn, the precision of the observations is critical. Observations are influenced by the experience of the observer.

Social observation can take many forms – from viewing a national political convention on television to watching two children behaving on the playground. Observation can be very directive, as when looking for specific events (factual or procedural); or it can be very nondirective, as when viewing an event and giving an opinion.

Communicating. In order to communicate observations, accurate records must be kept which can be submitted for checking and rechecking for others. Accumulated records and their analysis may be represented in many ways. Graphical representations are often used since they are clear, concise and meaningful. However, in the social studies, communication must encompass all of man, from his spoken and written work to his physical gestures.

Classifying. Classifying is the grouping or ordering of phenomena according to an established scheme. Objects and events may be classified on the basis of observations. Classificational schemes are based on observable similarities and differences in properties which are arbitrarily selected. Classificational keys are used to place items within a scheme as well as to retrieve information from a scheme.

Social classification is manifest in discussing the division of work in the house, or the make-up of a national political party. Classification is useful in that it helps limit or control the data being investigated.

Inferring. Inference is drawing tentative conclusions about what is not directly or immediately observable. While it may be based on observations, inference requires evaluation and judgment. Inferences based on one set of observations may suggest further observation which in turn requires modification of original inferences. Inference leads to prediction. In the social studies, inferring can take place whenever data are reviewed and an evaluation or judgment is requested. Inferring is necessary in any field of study because of the incompleteness of data.

Predicting. Predicting is the formulation of a possible consequence based on experience. The reliability of prediction depends upon the accuracy of past observations and upon the nature of the event being predicted. Predictions are based upon inference. Social predicting is becoming more systematic. Predicting may enable man to estimate the consequence of his behavior better and to make more rational decisions.

Measuring. Measuring properties of objects and events can be accomplished either by direct comparison, or by indirect comparison with arbitrary units. However, for purposes of communication, measurement may be standardized. Measuring in the social studies may take many forms, such as the number of persons in the United States or the Gross National Product.

Interpreting Data. Interpreting data requires the application of other basic process skills, in particular, the processes of inferring, predicting, classifying and communicating. Through this complex process the usefulness of data in answering the question being investigated is determined. Interpretations are always subject to revision in the light of new or more refined data. Social problem solving is dependent upon the investigator's ability to interpret data. Through interpreting data we move to decision making (e.g., voting for candidate X or Y; buying more life insurance).

Formulating Operational Definitions. Operational definitions are made in order to simplify communication concerning the event, person, or group being studied. An operational definition should contain the minimum amount of information needed to differentiate that which is being defined from other similar phenomena. Operational definitions are based upon the operations to be carried out and the phenomena

under investigation and thus are related to that specific investigation.

Formulating Questions and Hypotheses. Questions are formed on the basis of observations made and usually precede an attempt to evaluate a situation or event. Questions when precisely stated are problems to be solved through application of the other inquiry skills of the social studies. The attempt to answer one question may generate other questions. The formation of hypotheses depends directly upon questions, inference, and prediction. It consists of devising a statement that can be tested by a proof process. When more than one hypothesis is suggested by a set of observations, each must be tested separately. A workable hypothesis is stated in such a way that testing can establish its credibility. The inquirer's framework of concepts and generalizations influences the kind and quality of the questions and hypotheses he develops. In the social studies, if the generalization, "If labor is divided, then work is done more efficiently," is testable, it can be called or labeled a hypothesis.

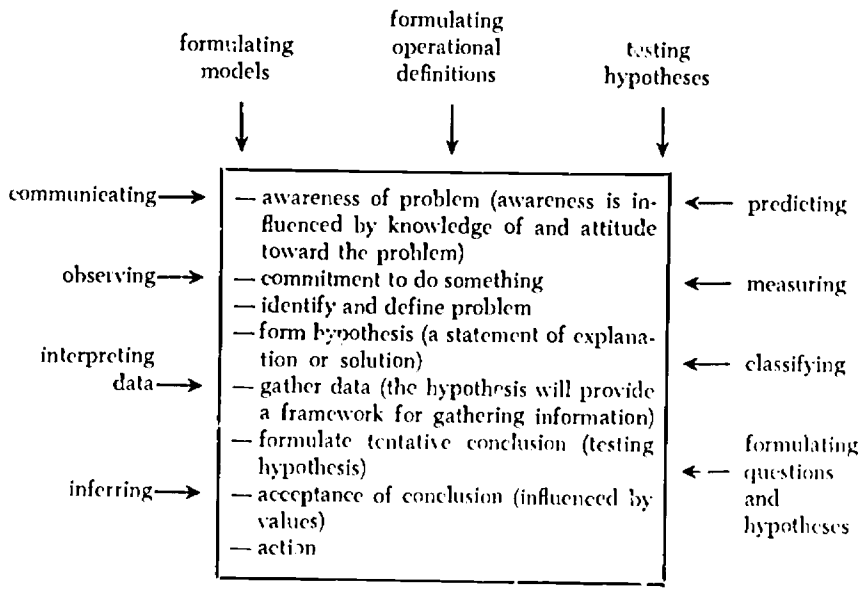
Testing Hypotheses. Testing hypotheses is the process of designing and using data gathering procedures, determining whether the data support the hypothesis. In a less formal sense, the proof process may be conducted simply by making observations. However, even here a plan to relate premises to data is inherent in the process. Among the ways that hypotheses are tested in the social studies are: (1) determining whether the hypothesis agrees with data gathered about persons, events, or situations in other times and places; (2) determining whether the hypothesis is consistent with additional data gathered about the event or situation under study; and (3) determining whether the hypothesis agrees with accepted generalizations.

Formulating Models. Models, whether physical or mental, are devised on the basis of acceptable hypotheses, or upon hypotheses that have yet to be tested. Models are used to describe and explain the interrelationship of ideas. In many cases the model implies new hypotheses and if testing these hypotheses gives new information, the model must be altered. Examples of model formation in the social studies are: a map, a drawing of an economy's spending system, and a diagram of the political structure of a country.

The chart on page 36 attempts to relate process to the maturity of the child. It is suggested that each process, after its introduction, be emphasized throughout the student's learning experience.

Problem Solving

We can look at the social studies processes and problem solving as being interdependent.



In a democratic society great responsibility is placed upon the individual citizen to make decisions affecting his own, the nation's and perhaps the world's welfare. Decision-making implies problem solving ability. Increasing complexities of society have made the teaching of problem-solving more important in the social studies program. By utilizing these processes of inquiry problem solving can effectively be carried out. This method permits the individual to decipher the structure of issues facing him.

In teaching for the attainment of skill in rational decision-making as a means of approaching the solution of personal as well as societal conflicts, the following objectives are presented as examples of process behaviors (the general statement is followed by a specific example).*

*Adapted from "A Position on K-12 Social Studies for Nebraska Schools," Nebraska State Department of Education, Lincoln, Nebraska.

1. (Formulating operational definitions) — Shows ability to state a problem in clearly defined terms.
   Example: Given a particular situation, the student will write out a problem and identify the terms within the problem.

2. (Formulating hypotheses) — Demonstrates an ability to formulate hypotheses in deciding upon alternative solutions to problems.
   Example: After a small group discussion situation, the student will orally identify as many proposed solutions to a problem as possible, within a specific time limit.

3. (Testing hypotheses) — Is able to select relevant information which will aid him in testing hypotheses and to distinguish facts from hypotheses.
   Example: From a list of identified hypotheses, the student will evaluate and select in the order of priority these hypotheses and supportive facts that would most likely succeed in solving the problem.

4. (Interpreting data) — Shows ability to interpret various kinds of social science data.
   Example: Given a political statement, the student will interpret it by drawing a political cartoon relating to the statement.

5. (Testing hypotheses) — Is able to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant data in the testing of hypotheses.
   Example: Given seven relevant and irrelevant statements, the student will select those statements most beneficial in solving a particular problem.

6. (Communication) — Shows ability to recognize the central theme and to comprehend the interrelationships among ideas in a passage.
   Example: Given a report on five countries and their indigenous foods, the student will identify in writing the interrelationship of the availability of foods to diet.

7. (Communication) — Is able to summarize or explain a communication in language other than that used in the original statement.
   Example: Given the population figures of the five largest cities in Wisconsin, the student will construct a bar graph.

8. (Communication) — Is able to recognize explicit and implicit assumptions in a given passage.
   Example: Given this statement, "There will be two cars in every garage," the student will recognize and state in writing the implicit and explicit assumptions.

9. (Communication) — Is able to recognize bias and emotional reasoning in a presentation.
   Example: Given the text of a biased speech, the student will underline phrases or words that would in-

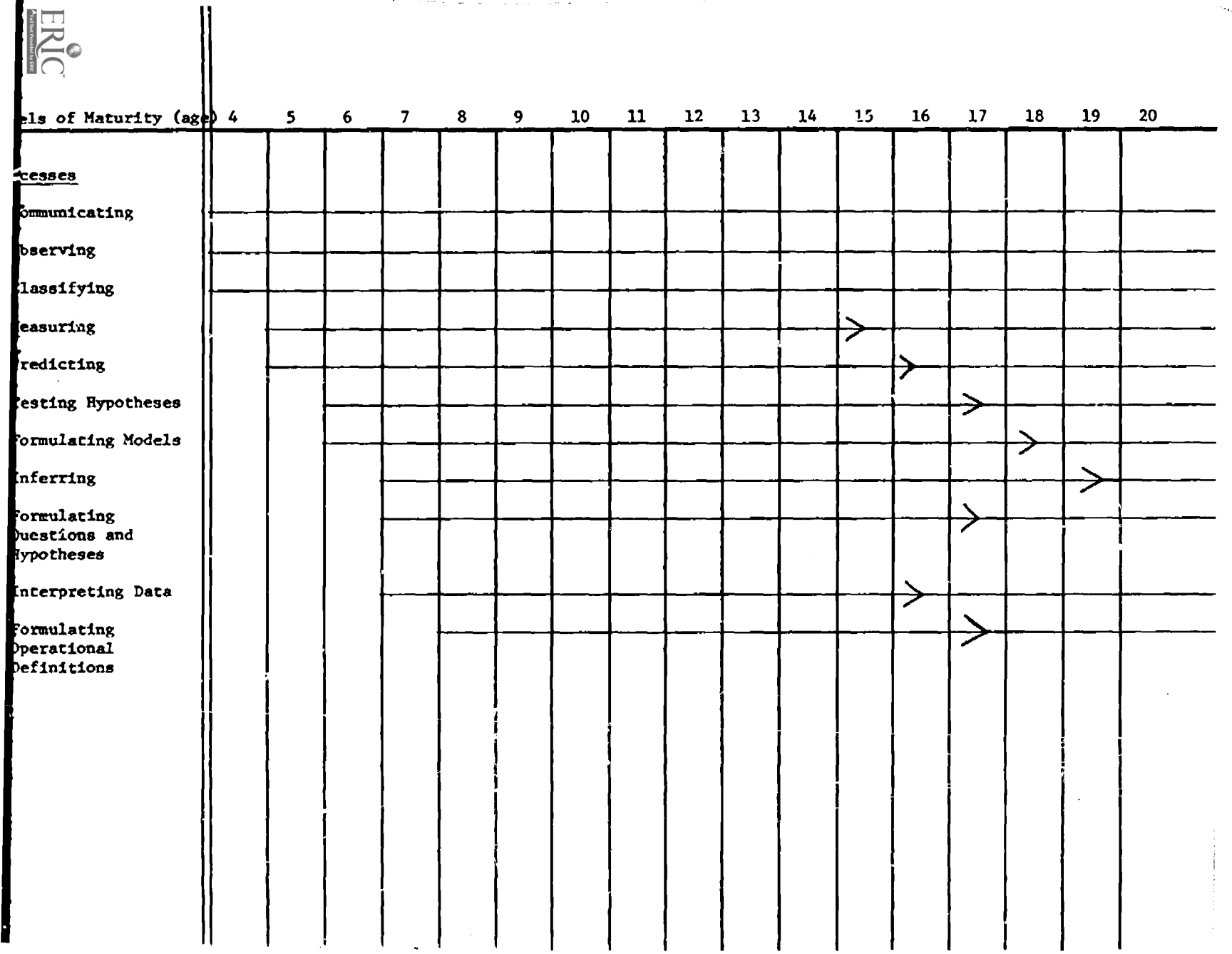
dicate emotionalism on the part of the author.

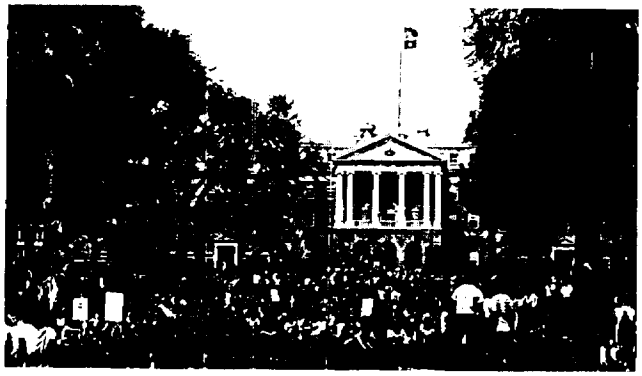
10. (Communication) – Shows ability to judge a communication in terms of internal evidence and logic.
    Example: Given a published article, the student will in writing identify and establish the validity of the internal evidence cited by the author.
11. (Testing hypotheses) – Is able to evaluate ideas or theories in terms of selected criteria.
    Example: Given a published article and four criteria for evaluating emotionalism, the student will underline those ideas and terms which meet the criteria.
12. (Predicting) – Is able to predict consequences of a solution to a particular problem.
    Example: Given the problem of a high automobile accident rate involving children walking to school and the solution of lowering the speed limit to 15 miles per hour, the student will identify the consequences in writing.
13. (Inferring and communicating) – Shows ability to draw conclusions from data and to state them effectively either orally or in writing.
    Example: Given data on three contrasting climatic zones, the student will orally or in writing arrive at conclusions concerning the life styles of the people who live in these zones. Given additional data, the student will judge in writing the validity of his conclusions.
14. (Hypothesis formation and testing) – Is able to use data in selecting from among alternative hypotheses which may be offered as a solution to a problem under study.
    Example: Given a problem of irrigating arid land, the student will arrive at three hypotheses (three ways of solving the problem of irrigation). Using related available data, the student will in a written statement, select the hypothesis which is most economical and buttress his choice with the data.
15. (Hypothesis formation and testing) – Shows ability to transfer method of inquiry to new problems and issues.
    Example: Given a new problem, the student will use the same method of inquiry as in #14 to solve the new problem.

It is suggested that the above general objectives and described inquiry processes are appropriate for the total K-12 social studies program, and each level of instruction should deal with these skills at a level of sophistication consistent with the maturity of the child.

Building an Intellectual Climate for Inquiry

Activities and techniques employed by teachers in the classroom may suit a variety of purposes. The same activity used in different ways may lead to a number of objectives. The purposes best served by these activities depend in part upon the personal characteristics of the teacher, the composition and the maturity of the class, previous experiences of the group, the context in which the activity is employed and a number of other variables beyond the scope of the present discussion. Inquiry processes may be developed in a variety of classroom situations whether the logical design of the lesson is deductive, inductive or a combination of the two. If our aim as educators is to give students a firm grasp of history and the social sciences, together with the skills and attitudes necessary for autonomous thinking and responsible action, then our "classroom," whatever else it is in nature, must manifest intellectual honesty. Critical to the development of an inquiry-oriented classroom is an intellectual climate in which both the teacher and the student feel a sense of responsibility and commitment (involvement) to the process of systematically searching, weighing and evaluating.


els of Maturity (age)
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
cesses
ommunicating
bserving
lassifying
easuring
redicting
esting Hypotheses
ormulating Models
nferring
ormulating Questions and Hypotheses
nterpreting Data
ormulating Operational Definitions



VALUES

Part III

Values in the New Social Studies

The survival of man is inexorably tied to his ability to solve the following problems: pollution of the environment, population growth, depletion of resources and war. These problems, which are worldwide in scope, together with the problems of social and economic injustice which abound intranationally as well as internationally, have one important factor in common – their solution calls for investigations into the values and attitudes of man – for the crisis facing us today is as much valuational as factual.

Basic Dimensions and Definitions

A basic function of the social studies is to assist students in acquiring democratic values and dispositions through rational, intellectual processes. Attitudinal change and development are the goals, but any such planned changes that take place within the school must come primarily through rational rather than irrational means. It is in the family that a child's basic traits are developed at a time when the child is not aware of their development. In the classroom, these acquired values and dispositions may be subjected to rational, logical analysis.

Values have to do with modes of conduct and end-states of existence. If a person has a value he has an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct (honesty, cleanliness, courage) or end-state of existence (world peace, salvation, equality, a comfortable life) is personally and socially preferable to the available alternatives. Once a value is internalized by an individual it becomes a standard for guiding his actions, for developing and maintaining attitudes toward situations and objects, and for judging and justifying his own actions and the actions of others. Values are often thought of as existing with a hierarchical structure, those values that are primary such as freedom and equality having the broadest application and importance while others such as punctuality or neatness are less crucial to the total value pattern of the individual.

Attitudes are made up of several beliefs (both as to matters of fact and matters of value) focused on a specific object or situation, such as the attitude one has toward sports cars, women politicians, or canaries as house pets. It is obvious that while one holds relatively few values, he has literally thousands of attitudes. A person's values largely determine his attitudes as well as his behavior. Because values occupy their central position in the value-attitude-belief system, education can most

effectively influence the behavior of students by influencing the values they hold. While values make up the core of this affective component of what any individual believes, an instructional strategy which causes a student to analyze any part of his value-attitude-belief system involves the "teaching of values" as that phrase is used in this document.

Most of the affective goals in the social studies can be divided into three basic types – values and attitudes for desirable intellectual behavior, for desirable social behavior, and for desirable democratic behavior. Values and attitudes for desirable intellectual behavior are those which are conducive to the cultivation of a relatively empirical, reasonable and humane outlook. Among them would be a scientific approach toward human behavior and a humanistic attitude toward the behavior of others. A scientific approach toward human behavior would encompass a spectrum of elements such as a belief in the natural causation of personal and social behavior, the strong likelihood of multiple rather than singular causation of social behavior, and objectivity and precision in collecting and interpreting data. A humanitarian view of the behavior of others implies two basic values – empathy and tolerance. Elements of desirable social behavior include awareness, interest, and acceptance of responsibility. These suggest that students and adults need to be aware of social problems and the social contributions of others, concerned about social problems, and willing to carry the burdens associated with positive action.

An objective of most social studies instruction is to develop with students a system of democratic values after a critical analysis of the arguments pro and con. While it is very difficult for more than two or three people to agree on the precise content of a democratic value system, some of the key elements are freedom of speech, press and religion, the dignity, equality and brotherhood of man, and the development of public policy through open and rational means. Such values are honored in public utterance by most Americans but at the same time they divide the individual and the nation in practice. Many such divisions include serious points of disagreement that are virtually closed to rational analysis. Very often the effective impact of a social studies program is determined by the manner in which such closed areas are handled. If the student is required to evaluate and analyze the beliefs and values involved, whatever value commitment results tends to be the consequence of a process consistent with democratic values and processes. However, inculcation by preachment is a form of authoritarian indoctrination subversive of a democratic system. This is not to say, of course, that the young child is capable of making rational choices about running into a busy street or drinking dirty water from a tin can. There are times when youngsters must be told what to do. The goal, however, if they are ever to be equipped to function in a democratic social setting, is for each person to be able to make rational, deliberate choices. Such individual decisions are always made in the context of an existing legal and social structure that sets very real limits on every individual. It is essential that we help students to become aware of this existing legal and social structure and how it affects every individual.

It is our opinion that there is no single best approach to values and the process of valuing in the classroom. While the individual teacher may favor one or more of the teaching strategies presented here, all of them have their place and are useful for certain purposes. The State Social Studies Committee believes that a teacher should be skilled in using several approaches and perceptive about when each can be appropriately used. It is quite impossible to develop a satisfactory value curriculum in the sense of a program of study that one would urge upon all schools. Many values are named as well as implied in the **Wisconsin Conceptual Framework**. Most teachers will want to go beyond what is suggested there, particularly in the area of personal morality. There are political, social, and economic issues that arise in a community that cannot be foreseen but provide excellent content for the social studies classroom. The

material which follows makes no attempt to provide the basic value content for a total social studies program. The bibliography at the end of this book provides some guidelines for that. However, it is our conviction that the most effective teaching will be done by those teachers and departments which develop many of their own materials. Therefore, we have tried to provide several illustrations of various classroom strategies for a variety of grade levels. Many more ideas can be found in the materials given in the bibliography.

The Schools and the Society

Much has been written about values in the past few years. As the young accelerate their protest against their vocational, political, and social inheritance, even more diagnoses will appear in papers, periodicals and books. Probing will uncover no certainties and no singularity of cause, but all conjectures will include allusions to values – or lack of values. Fingers will be pointed accusingly at educational institutions and agencies for their sins of omission or commission, the specific indictment being dependent on the frame of reference of the accuser.

Certainly the school cannot escape involvement, nor does it wish to. Inasmuch as the schools are an integral part of the existing establishment, pressures are applied by state legislatures to perpetuate at least the time honored tenets of the Constitution and the Bill of Rights. Organizations such as the American Legion, The Taxpayers' Alliance, and the American Civil Liberties Union urge the development of certain values in today's youths if they are to function as effective citizens in the world of tomorrow.

The "world of tomorrow" would appear to be a stumbling block. What values do students develop to prepare them for the unknown? Granted change is inevitable, human nature en masse finds it difficult at best to adjust to the momentum engendered by technological knowledge and experimentation. As soon as the future direction of the society seems to be clear, a new discovery alters the course. As a result, the todays and tomorrows in which children will live their lives are part of what has been called a "permanent" revolution. Until such time as society achieves consensus, how to think and how to value would seem more germane than what to think and what to value.

However, many educators are loath to make a commitment solely to a process of inquiry into values. They accept the premise that even in a diverse society there is general agreement on such values as human dignity, majority rule and minority rights, freedom of speech, inviolability of private property, and others. They recognize the fact that while differences of opinion arise in establishing priorities, major conflicts develop largely from opposing interpretations supported by segments of society. They conclude that it is the importance of values that should be stressed and that students should be helped to develop a set of values.

The area of values is frequently avoided in the social studies curriculum. While development of values is usually listed among the objectives, there is little implementation suggested or practiced. The controversy inherent in value teaching leads teachers either to avoid the subject or to deal only with those values that maintain the status quo without regard to their appropriateness to the present. Neglect and indoctrination would seem to be dishonest approaches as would neutrality on the part of the teacher.

If a teacher urges students to think for themselves, but displays a lack of conviction himself, the contradiction is soon detected. This in no way implies a teacher's right to impose values or teach eternal verities, although in some cases such as class conduct and behavior, this is necessary to insure an environment conducive to learning. Actually, despite any disinclination to do so, every teacher displays his values. His own conduct in the classroom, his attitude toward students, his choice of materials and methods attest to his own value system.

However, when it comes to substantive values, the job that needs to be done is to stimulate a questioning attitude by presenting various and conflicting values involved in an issue,

to encourage discussion and evaluation, and to help students evolve and arrange their own value systems. While at times it may be desirable for a teacher to appear to be neutral on substantive issues, in general it is much better if the teacher is open about his own preferences. It enables the student to take the teacher's biases into account in assessing how objectively and fairly a unit of work has been developed. In addition, to the extent that the teacher may serve as a model of a democratic citizen, it is important that he be viewed as a person with clear, well thought-out value preferences.

A child generally comes to school with what R. J. Havighurst calls an authoritarian conscience acquired from his parents through a progression of punishments and rewards. He soon learns that he is not equipped to deal with all the new situations which confront him. Peers and teachers join and sometimes supplant parents in helping him to find solutions which are often in conflict with those offered by his parents. His task, then, is to change from this early authoritarian conscience to a rational one. This requires that he learn a process for resolving to his own satisfaction the conflicts that will inevitably arise whenever change or confrontation with an opposing view makes him question his existing values.

The stages of moral development set forth by Lawrence Kohlberg suggest that the student at various ages and levels of maturity will tend to function in different ways. It should be possible for a teacher to ascertain at which of these levels a student is operating with respect to a particular question and respond in an appropriate manner.

Level 1. Pre-moral level:
1. Punishment and obedience orientation (obey rules to avoid punishment).
2. Naive instrumental hedonism (conform to obtain rewards, have favors returned).

Level 2. Morality of conventional rule-conformity:
3. Good-boy morality of maintaining good relations, approval of others (conform to avoid disapproval and dislike by others).
4. Authority-maintaining morality (conform to avoid censure by legitimate authority and the resulting guilt).

Level 3. Morality of self-accepted moral principles:
5. Morality of contract and democratically-accepted law (conform to maintain the respect of the impartial spectator judging in terms of community welfare).
6. Morality of individual principles of conscience (conform to avoid self-condemnation).

At the primary level children need teacher direction in many instances simply to safeguard their health and physical safety. During these early years of schooling they can be made aware of the values of their culture and come to understand more fully what values are and how they function in the life of an individual or human group. At a later period the youngster can consider how values develop in a society and the very crucial matter of value change which usually occurs as a part of social change. The accelerating pace of social change in our society makes this a topic of central importance in social education. Finally, the high school student needs to recognize the great diversity of values in contemporary society and their consequences for his life. This involves the examination of social and political conflicts and the clash of competing values that are almost certain to be present there. Independence of thought and freedom of individual choice should become a reality for the high school student.

The State Committee spent many hours over a one year period attempting to achieve consensus on the teaching of values. It was perhaps inevitable that, given the nature of our society, individual differences of viewpoint and belief concerning the handling of values in the classroom were maintained even after much study and debate. However, it is essential that the

reader be informed of certain articles of faith that undergird this material.

Values are often taught indirectly. It is important to recognize that the manner in which a teacher conducts a class and treats individual students provides the students with examples of desirable or undesirable values. Indeed this teaching by example may be the most powerful "value curriculum" that the school offers the child. It is well for teachers to be conscious of this and consider what values are implicit in their teaching behavior.

We don't know how to teach values. This isn't quite true because much can be learned by observing practices over many centuries around the world in monasteries, family groups, a variety of private schools or anywhere specific values have been stressed. But within the setting of a typical public school with the multitude of conflicting stimuli influencing the child, it is difficult to tell with certainty what activities will influence a child in a desired direction. While small group theory and social psychology in general are helpful, it is difficult, perhaps even unethical, to simulate laboratory conditions in the classroom. We assume, however, that the perceptive, thoughtful teacher will, if he adopts the suggestions given here, influence the student's values, his understanding of the nature of values, and the valuing process he uses.

We will not supply a list of values to be taught. If our assumptions about the diversity of values now existing in our society are valid, then teachers do and should disagree about the values to be stressed in our schools. Hopefully the study of values will enable students to understand this diversity and cope with it more successfully. We believe each teacher has a responsibility to think through his own pattern of values so he may better assist students to do the same. While the committee members disagreed on many points, they all accepted such values as "respect for the integrity of the individual," "the open pursuit of truth," "the ability of persons to govern themselves," "the protection of individual civil rights," and "the fundamental moral equality of all men." You may find these acceptable, but even if you do, your interpretation of them may be different from any one of ours. Indeed, one of the reasons such general values are acceptable to everyone is because they can be interpreted in many ways.

Values permeate the entire curriculum and the system of education. The social studies has no monopoly on value laden content. The study of values is not assigned to the social studies teacher. In addition, values are exemplified by the manner in which course selection, the guidance function, the lunch room and all other activities within the school are conducted.

The focus of the study of values should be on the present and future. Many of our values have roots deep in the past, but the basic need of the child is to understand himself and his world. This does not preclude an appreciation of man's long struggle to build a better society and universalize such values as freedom and equality. Historical perspective is valuable but must be accompanied by a continuous effort to comprehend the present and the future.

Three Sources of Values

Philosophers, theologians and social scientists have developed a wide variety of value positions. It seems particularly useful in our discussion of values in the classroom to deal with three approaches to the source of values:

1) Traditional or inherited values. Such values are received largely intact as a part of religious doctrine, cultural heritage or national creed. The child seldom questions such values, at least in his first encounters with them, but typically accepts them from parents, teacher, television, playmates and other normal environmental sources. He learns them as a part of the informal socialization experienced by every youngster. This is by far the most important source of values for most people.
2) Values based on empirical research. Our respect for the scientific method prompts us to ground our perceptions of the good life and the good society in empirically

verifiable truths about man and nature. This approach suggests that our values shift as our knowledge changes. If research shows that regular exercise enhances our physical and psychological health, then we value recreation programs and daily jogging.

3) The individual is the ultimate source of values. Only the individual can know what is best for him, and he only warps his natural self by conforming to tradition, science, or society. Personal fulfillment requires that each do "his own thing". While the current version of this approach to values has gained popularity only very recently, it has been accepted at least vocally by many young people and, therefore, should be understood by teachers.

It is quite appropriate that each of the sources of values enter into the work within social studies classes. Children are inevitably going to carry with them the values of their parents, their church and their social group. This is part of the mental equipment they bring into the school building every day they are in school. If they are asked to analyze their own behaviors and attitudes, they will become aware of what they believe and where the belief probably came from. In addition, however, within social studies courses students will come in contact with the theories and research findings of psychologists, economists, sociologists and other social scientists. Frequently this empirical evidence contradicts traditional beliefs and causes the student as well as the society at large to question its values. The 1954 Supreme Court decision regarding the inappropriateness of separate but equal educational facilities was based largely on such research evidence, for example. At the junior and senior high level one technique for engaging students in the study of conflicting values is to test student beliefs against research evidence. And finally, if a student expresses a desire to build his value pattern from within himself, the problems and possibilities of such an approach can be examined by the teacher and class. Without being vocal or open about it (of course, some are very vocal), it is likely that many students are continually developing and building their personal value system in response to what they hear, do and say within as well as outside the school. To what extent this value system will be "his own thing" or accurately reflect the society of which he is a part will obviously vary greatly from individual to individual.

Values and the Schools

In a society in which there is general consensus on values, the public schools' role is quite clear. It is expected to reinforce and build into its curriculum and procedures the prevailing values. But in a situation of change and controversy about basic social norms, the position the schools should take is not as easily determined. Each of the competing segments of the society – special interest groups, economic and business interests, political organizations, religious and ethnic groups, professional organizations, and so forth – all such groups believe that what they desire for themselves is also good for everyone, and they want to influence the training of the young in the desired directions. The school board, the administration, the teachers, and textbook publishers find they are being pushed and pulled by these interest groups each of whom wants the schools to foster its values and beliefs.

Traditionally there was little question that the schools should promote such values as the following:

1. Respect property.
2. Be respectful of adults.
3. Say please and thank you at appropriate times.
4. Do not use profane language or bad grammar.
5. Be neat and clean.
6. Do not lie or cheat.

Now, however, in some situations these are quite controversial. Many lawsuits and community controversies have focused on the meaning of "neat and clean," for example. Several recent surveys indicate that cheating in school, rather than being unacceptable, has

become the norm, and most students feel no guilt about cheating. Standards of profanity are constantly changing and words that one rarely heard used in public a few years ago are now heard a great deal. While many may not like these developments, it is very necessary for teachers to recognize that they are taking place.

It is important to understand, too, that the school as a social institution, as a place where adults and youngsters live together for a large portion of the day, promotes many values simply in the way it is organized and run. Students may learn that:

1. Boys should be interested in sports. Girls should be interested in reading, clothes and jump rope.
2. Fear and sadness are acceptable emotions for girls but not for boys.
3. As an individual, I don't amount to much. Or, as an individual, I have considerable skill and talent and people like me.
4. Teachers and adults generally have the answers and know what is good for me. Or, everyone affected by a social situation should share in controlling and assessing it.

While it is beyond the scope of this project to deal with the subtle but very powerful set of relationships that exist among students, teachers, and administrators in the school as a social structure, it is hoped that this brief mention will encourage teachers and administrators to look at it carefully. A somewhat polemical but very provocative commentary on the problem is Edgar Friedenberg's **Coming of Age in America.**

Approaches to the Handling of Values

Inculcation of specific values. The traditional approach to value education begins by identifying those which the schools wish to inculcate into youth. A recent example is found in a bulletin titled **The Teaching of Values,** published by the Los Angeles City Schools. After a brief introduction, the book presents a comprehensive statement of "enduring values" under the headings of integrity, courage, responsibility, justice, reverence, love and respect for law and order. The shared responsibility among the school, family, church, and community for teaching these values is noted. A major section of the book titled "Suggested Learning Activities" offers many possible lessons, such as the following, which relate to the value of integrity:

"Billy finds some money on the school grounds. The children write stories describing what he should do with the money and why."

"For the school newspaper, pupils write editorials about honesty, loyalty, and faith and how each might apply to school situations."

"Pupils listen to the sound track of 'Lincoln in the White House'. They list ways in which Lincoln showed a high degree of moral courage."

Many of the suggested activities offer students an opportunity to make a moral or ethical decision. However, the students' solution to these problems is not entirely free because the teacher is committed by this approach to be the agent of society and must attempt to steer conclusions in socially acceptable directions.

Non-directive consideration of personal decisions and beliefs. This approach is illustrated in the book titled **Values and Teaching,** by Louis Raths, Merrill Harmin and Sidney Simon. In sharp contrast to the Los Angeles program, the Raths book does not define the substantive values which the school should promote. As the authors put it, "Our emphasis is in the valuing rather than on values" (p. 10).

The following quotation summarizes this strategy:

> What, according to the theory that we propose, does one do if one wants to take on the problem of helping children develop values? Briefly, one assists children in using the process of valuing. The process flows naturally from the definition of values presented earlier. That is, an adult who would help children develop values would be advised to:
>
> 1. Encourage children to make choices, and to make them freely.
> 2. Help them discover and examine alter-

natives when faced with choices.

3. Help children weigh alternatives thoughtfully, reflecting on the consequences of each.
4. Encourage children to consider what it is that they prize and cherish.
5. Give them opportunities to make public affirmations of their choices.
6. Encourage them to act, behave, live in accordance with their choice.
7. Help them to examine repeated behaviors or patterns in their life.

In this way, the adult encourages the process of valuing. The intent of this process is to help children (although it is equally applicable to adults) clarify for themselves what they value. This is very different from trying to persuade children to accept some predetermined set of values. It is based on a conception of democracy that says persons can learn to make their own decisions, that says human beings hold the possibility of being thoughtful and wise and that the most appropriate values will come when persons use their intelligence freely and reflectively to define their relationships with each other and with an ever-changing world. Furthermore, it is based on the idea that values are personal things if they exist at all, that they cannot be personal until they are freely accepted, and that they cannot be of much significance if they do not penetrate the living of the person who holds them.

Raths points out that much of the most effective value education takes place in the normal routine of school with students and teachers encountering value issues. The teacher is advised to avoid moralizing but rather ask questions which lead students to explore their value patterns. In addition, this book suggests numerous lessons for classroom use which present some kind of value-related episode or situation and then asks students to answer questions. The anticipated result is that students will gradually build a logical value system which has personal meaning to them. Although this plan avoids identifying values to be imposed [illegible]outh there seems to be an underlying assumption that the main values in our culture are logically justifiable to the extent that serious intellectual consideration by youth will lead to the valuing of much which our society accepts as "the good life."

Many of the suggestions for lessons in **Values and Teaching** are designed to get the student to state what he believes. This brings his values to the surface and makes him aware of them. They are not necessarily challenged or examined critically in class but it is hoped that gradually the student will be led to examine his values and observe how they function in his daily life. The emphasis seems to be on elementary rather than secondary youngsters.

Developing a desirable self perception. Before a student is likely to exhibit proper interpersonal relationships within the context of the values in his society he must develop a feeling of being a worthy individual and must have realistic and constructive attitudes toward success and failure. The teacher's function is illustrated in this description quoted from **Developing Moral-Spiritual Values in the Schools,** by the California Subcommittee on the Development of Moral and Spiritual Values in the Schools.

> "A group of boys in a special remedial class for slow learners felt that they were looked down upon by the other pupils. They seemed eager to learn, but were suspicious of any extra attention and stuck together for mutual protection."
>
> "Miss Jones, sensing the situation, tried to lose the tension by conducting a program fitted to their needs. One of the morning routines was to send the lunch money and a list of names to the school cafeteria. Catching the eye of Billy, who was the leader, she said: 'Billy, would you like to take the money to Mrs. Sousa?' Billy looked at her a little startled, glanced over his shoulder at the others, and then came to her desk. 'You mean me?' "
>
> "Yes, wouldn't you like to do it?"
>
> "Sure, I want to," but leaning on his elbow over the desk, he said in a stage whisper, "Didn't the rest of 'em tell you I steal?"

Miss Jones, smiling, said: "But you don't, do you, Bill?"

"No – not now. I did a little in the second and third grade and they still think I do. None of the others trust me. You're good to us, so I thought you should know about me before you got into trouble."

He was so anxious to prove himself worthy that before she could answer he took the money bag, and in no time was back with a proud look on his face.

To deliver the lunch money was his duty all that week, and each day was a red letter day for him.

That Friday he skipped the ball game and waited at noon to talk to Miss Jones. "I never did that before. Just the good girls got the chance. Was I all right? I came right back. Can I do it again? Take the money down, I mean?"

"You certainly may, Bill. I saw you selling papers when I took the train the other day. You have a paper route. Your boss trusts you with the paper money, doesn't he?"

"Sure – and I have $200 saved in the bank!"

"I think we are the lucky ones to have such a businessman as you, Bill, to do the job for us," Miss Jones said.

Bill's spirit of self-confidence spread to the others, who now stuck together in pride rather than in self-defense."

There is no single appropriate place in the curriculum for attention to a student's self-perception and self-development. It belongs anywhere a teacher can successfully deal with the problem. Undoubtedly, however, the early years of schooling set patterns of behavior and perception with respect to the functioning of the youngster within the school that tend to persist. Many teachers feel inadequate to deal with the complex matter of the child's ego development, but it is probably not too much to assert that how a child values himself is the most crucial value he holds. Most teachers at every level can, without engaging students in exercises that border on psychoanalysis, establish a classroom atmosphere and build a relationship with their students in which the children feel they are competent, respected and valued individuals. The necessity for grading and following a curriculum often interferes with the establishment of such a relationship.

Learning about values and how they function. Behavioral scientists have approached values from a different vantage point than the more traditional work of philosophers and theologians. They are not interested in persuading someone to adopt certain values. Without any desire to praise or condemn they simply study the values men hold, the means by which they attain them, and how they function. There is a wealth of knowledge about values and valuing that could be included in the social studies curriculum. However, much of it is equally or even more appropriate in other parts of the curriculum. A most effective program dealing with values could be developed by coordinating work in such fields as home economics, literature, fine arts, and social studies. A fundamental aspect of knowledge about values deals with how they develop within a culture. While the basic material for such a teaching unit would probably come from anthropology and sociology, a novel such as **Lord of the Flies**, by William Golding, could well be the focus of a very effective set of lessons on the development of social norms for high school students. The comparative study of values and how they function within different societies is illustrated very well by the art produced in several societies. An art teacher and a social studies teacher working together could develop teaching materials on these topics that would likely be more effective than each working independently. The matter of how an individual acquires his values, while it has been dealt with extensively by social scientists and would be very appropriate for social studies courses, would be equally appropriate as a part of the child development units in home economics.

Additional topics that could receive attention if one wishes to deal with knowledge about values include the following: What are my values and how did I get them? What are the values of my society? How do values function

for me and for the society as a whole? How and why do values change? The matter of societal change and the impact of changing values is particularly important at this time. The following paragraphs indicate some of the knowledge about values that might be included in the curriculum. Many books could be filled with such material, some of which is quite simple and obvious while other parts are complex or very controversial.

Values in every culture are not inherited but rather are learned. A baby born of parents from one culture but raised in another culture will adopt the values of the adopted culture. Values are not carried genetically from one generation to the next as is the case with the instinctive behavior patterns of insects, birds and animals.

Anthropologists note that values in any society fall along a scale. Those taken less seriously are called folkways and are at one end; while others called mores at the opposite end of the scale are taken very seriously. Folkways take the form of manners, styles and certain social conventions. In our middle class society a folkway requires men to open the door for women. The fashions in dress, architecture and automobile design are styles. The relatively low seriousness of folkways are shown in the comparatively informal and light pressures used to enforce them. These social pressures toward observing any values are called sanctions.

Common sanctions for violation of a folkway in our society are laughter, teasing, gossip and shunning. A woman whose dresses are too long or of an inappropriate cut is subjected to these sanctions. A man with bad grammar has not committed a very grave error but it is noted by his colleagues and can have a bearing on determining which groups accept him and whether he receives certain kinds of recognition.

Toward the middle of the anthropologist's scale are sprinkled many values held to be more important than folkways. These would include group rules, codes of ethics and some role definitions. A school handbook outlining proper student conduct would fall in this area on the scale. Codes of ethics for teachers which rule against gifts from students or special compensation for tutoring are other examples of middle values. Violation of these values calls for all of the kinds of sanctions listed for folkways and also some that are more severe, including a reprimand, corporal punishment for children, public condemnation and fines.

Mores are a society's most seriously held values and taboos. In our society the "Ten Commandments" and "Beatitudes" are statements of mores, while our interpretation of democracy and capitalism would be the political and economic mores which are formalized in the U. S. Constitution, legislative law and common law. The sanctions for violations on this end of the scale include all mentioned earlier for less serious matters, plus some formal and severe penalties such as imprisonment, heavy fines, exile, excommunication, torture, and even capital punishment.

To most Americans industriousness, thrift and ambition are positive values. In games and in business alike the aim is to win the game, the trophy, the contract. But a Hopi Indian child is taught that he should never push himself forward, never try to win at games. The Hopi child is embarrassed when he gets ahead of his playmates. Competition as we know it is alien to the Hopi system of values.

The values of a society can be discovered by answering such questions as these:

What would parents most like children to be and do when they grow up?

What virtues are emphasized in formal and informal education?

What do people feel is worth dying for?

What behavior warrants the most severe social sanctions?

Analysis of value conflicts. This usually involves engaging students in dialogue concerning value conflicts presently confronting them and the society generally. It is usually assumed that such an approach, which may involve a challenge to the values held by a student, is

more appropriate for junior and senior high school students than for elementary school students. There is now available a considerable body of commercially published material which is intended to develop value laden issues in the classroom. The following procedures or assumptions are usually involved:

1. The instructional task is not that of teaching the student something he doesn't know but rather one of clarifying or developing attitude, beliefs, and values the student already has but may not have articulated. Any child at any age in school has values. What you are doing is asking him to become aware of those he has, analyze them, evaluate them, and consider their social consequences.
2. Carefully directed discussion is a very crucial part of the teaching procedure. The "right answer" environment is not conducive to dealing with values in this way.
3. The individual student must commit himself. He must become personally involved which means the issue and the values at stake must be significant to him. While much historical material can be used, the focus is always on the contemporary society. It also means that material and issues that are very meaningful and effective in one school may not be in another.
4. The basic steps of teaching method are: (a) identify a value issue through the use of discussion, a film, reading an historical account or piece of literature, or whatever; (b) clarify any terms or concepts which may be involved so that all the students perceive the issue the same so far as possible; (c) research the issue as carefully as the age and abilities of the students permit; (d) through the use of analogies, hypothesis testing and other devices, look at the personal and social consequences of the several values at stake in the issue.

One approach that falls within this general category has been developed very fully in **Teaching High School Social Studies**, by Hunt and Metcalf. These authors appear to have adopted the theory of values and value change developed by Gunnar Myrdal in his classic study of race in the United States, **The American Dilemma.** Myrdal assumed that there is within most people in this country a drive to be consistent. That is, if it becomes clear to us that we are inconsistent in our beliefs or values, we will make every effort to change toward a more consistent position. He also assumes that most of us carry around in our heads value inconsistencies. That is, we believe that honesty is the best policy, but we also believe that you have to be sharp to get ahead. Or we say that we believe in the principle of brotherhood but we wouldn't invite a Negro to a party at our home. Hunt and Metcalf have devised teaching strategies that make students aware of value inconsistencies they have learned from the society around them. Assuming he wants to be consistent, an awareness of inconsistency troubles the individual and causes him to seek ways to remove the inconsistency. The goal of such teaching is to help the student develop a consistent, well understood set of values that he knows how to use as he faces a society full of value confusion.

A second approach is that developed theoretically by Oliver and Shaver in **Teaching Public Issues in the High School** and illustrated by the American Education Publications teaching materials written by Newmann and Oliver. The emphasis here is on political values as they come into conflict in contemporary social issues. The basic purpose is to encourage the student to explore a controversial political issue, to find where he stands and how he can best defend his position in terms of social reality. Strong emphasis is placed on the development of the student's ability to clarify a point of controversy, test evidence, advance an argument, and use other skills needed in dialogue and discussion. The use of historical analogies brings in a great deal of historical material and motion pictures, film strips, drama, poetry, fictional vignettes, and other instructional media are combined in an effort to maximize the student's involvement.

Developing the process of valuing. While everyone learns through trial and error within his family and neighborhood setting one or more approaches to the making of value choices, it is the particular responsibility of the schools to develop a systematic, rational process for making such decisions. When faced with a dilemma an individual may have learned to resort to one or more "psychological solutions" such as denial, repression or withdrawal or he may use a variety of intellectual attacks including rationalization, the appeal to authority, or what he takes to be common sense. While all of us use these devices to a greater or lesser extent, the social studies teacher should encourage the students to replace them with reflective or critical processes of valuing.

Much of the strategy for reflective valuing is quite familiar to teachers. The act of evaluation as a formal process closely resembles problem solving. One set of authors sketches it as follows:

Belief
(Value Judgment)
Doubt
(aroused by the development of conflict between values)
Ideas
(Hypotheses showing the consequences of acting in terms of each of the disputed values)
Tests
Tested Belief
(Reflecting a value, the pursuit of which seems to offer the best road for getting to some end not in doubt)

(Hunt and Metcalf)

Such a formal procedure appears rather ominous and cumbersome to many teachers. The development of an example may help. Assume a group of students accepts the commonly held values of independence and self-reliance. Following a local catastrophe many persons are made homeless and others lose many of their personal possessions because of flooding. The question arises whether or not the state and federal government should provide low interest loans and other special benefits to these flood victims. Such aid appears to violate the students' values and they find they are torn between their personal value commitments of self-reliance and independence and the obvious need of some of their neighbors. Within the classroom the teacher might proceed as follows: (1) through discussion and the gathering of information from newspapers and witnesses, describe the situation as accurately as possible; (2) clarify the conflicting values that students feel; (3) consider the likely consequences of acting on the basis of each of the relevant value positions; (4) examine each of these anticipated outcomes in terms of other values the students hold, particularly those prescribing end-states of existence; (5) determine whether any students feel they should alter in some way the values they brought into the discussion.

In the course of such a process students usually demonstrate several of the less desirable ways of decision making such as appeal to authority (often themselves, a friend, or a public figure), withdrawal ("Aw, the government will do it anyway so why worry about it"), or rationalization ("If those people had saved their money they wouldn't need any help"). The teacher should point out the inadequacy or inappropriateness of such processes and develop a sense of the value of the reflective approach.

The process of valuing sketched here can be applied to such questions as should I smoke cigarettes, should we have put a man on the moon, should I kiss a girl on the first date, or any other moral or value decision one might face. The process stresses the need to be as unemotional as possible, defining the value issue carefully, relying on empirical evidence as much as possible, and looking at the consequences of personal decisions or public policies.

Comparative approach to the analysis of values. A student can better understand his own culture as well as other cultures by engaging in a comparative study of several cultures. Values are a central component of any culture. It is sometimes easier for a student to grasp the place of values in human society, the processes of cultural change such as invention and diffusion, and the interrelatedness of culture by studying relatively simple or distant cultures

rather than his own. One possibility is to adopt an essentially anthropological approach by studying simple societies in order to gain greater insight into the workings of a culture. The material in a book such as **Four Ways of Being Human**, by Gene Lisitsky, can be used in this way. Many films and slides as well as sets of photographs are now available to help the younger child or the poor reader to grasp the concept of culture and the differences among cultures. The Anthropology Curriculum Study Project has much to contribute to such an approach. It is not possible here to list the bibliographies, filmstrips, and other teaching aids prepared by the Project, but the 16-week secondary school course titled "Patterns in Human History: An Anthropological Perspective" provides much material relevant to the analysis of values.

Many world history courses are now conceived by teachers and students as cultural area courses. While many such courses have been developed, they usually contain some or all of the following elements: an essentially historical sketch of the development of each cultural area emphasizing shifts in cultural patterns; an analysis of the traditional folk culture that persisted prior to Westernization or industrialization; and the trends of the present and recent past. In the process of analyzing any culture these factors are related to the total developmental scheme: (1) the influence of the environment (2) technological level as related to natural resources, geography, and the needs of the people (3) institutions such as the family, religion, ethics, politics, and economics which relate people one with another (4) any special cultural products such as art, music, or ideologies. Such an approach places human values in their total social context and enables the student to better understand his own culture and the place of values in it. Very often considerable attention is given to parallel or contrasting situations in the culture of the United States throughout the course.

We should not overlook, either, the fact that one can develop the comparative cultures approach without considering any society other than our own. The many sub-cultures in our midst provide excellent material for the study of culture differences and the accompanying value differences. Many students in the small towns and cities of Wisconsin are no more able to understand a conversation between two Negro boys in Milwaukee than two Chinese boys in Taiwan or two French boys in Paris. The values and other cultural traits of the Amish, jazz musicians, or Basque shepherds in the Western mountains provide other examples.

Teaching Strategies

1. PRIMARY GRADES: DEVELOPING EMPATHY FOR OTHER INDIVIDUALS
   (Adapted from **Phi Delta Kappan**, April, 1969, p. 460)

   Instructional Objectives: Given the information in the following story students should be able to:

   a. State the alternatives open to Willie (the central character in the story);
   b. Describe at least two things that might happen to Willie, depending on what course of action he decides to pursue; and how they think Willie would feel in each instance;
   c. State what they think they would do if they were Willie, and explain why they think they would do this;
   d. Describe how they think they would feel if they did this;
   e. State what they believe is a warranted generalization about how people feel in situations similar to Willie's.

   In this strategy, students are asked to read a story (or have the story read to them, depending on age and grade level) in which an individual, as real-life as possible, is faced with a choice between two (or more) conflicting alternatives. Here is one such story that might be used with first graders:

   Willie Johnson was in trouble! In school this morning he had thrown his paint water at Sue Nelligan and the

teacher had become angry with him. "Why did you do that, Willie?" she had asked. Willie couldn't tell her, because he really didn't know why himself. He knew that she had teased him a little, but that wasn't the real reason. He just didn't know! The whole thing put him in a bad mood. From then on the entire day just went to heck.

In the afternoon he had pushed Tommy Grigsly in the recess line. He had also stamped his foot and yelled at the teacher. The teacher had become angry with him again. But this time she had pinned a note to his mother on his jacket.

That note! He knew it was about his behavior in class during the day. He knew that when he got home his mother would read the note and give him some kind of punishment. Then his father would find out about it and he would really get it!

On his way home from school Willie was thinking about what his father would do to him.

"Wow!" He thought, "I'll get killed if I take this note home. I'd better take if off and throw it away."

He was just about to do that when he remembered what had happened to Billy Beatty when he was sent home with a note. Billy had thrown his note away and was sent to the principal's office about it. Then Billy was in double trouble!

Wow! He was in trouble. He couldn't give it to his mother, he couldn't throw it away. What should he do? He had a problem, all right. He had to make a choice, but how should he choose? No matter what he did, the outcome didn't look too good! What should he do?

Upon completion of the reading, the teacher can ask the class the following questions:

1. What things might Willie do? (What alternatives are open to him?)
2. What might happen to him if he does these things? (Discuss each alternative.)
3. How do you think he'd feel, in each case, if this happened?
4. If you were faced with this situation, what would you do?
5. How do you think you'd feel?
6. Basing your answer on how you've said you would feel and how you think Willie felt, what can you say about how people feel in situations like this?

II. JUNIOR OR SENIOR HIGH: EXAMINING THE SOURCE OF VALUES

(Adapted from a lesson prepared by Jan Herman of Kewaunee.)

I undertook this evaluation question with my seventh grade classes:

> "Cigarette smoking is adult. I feel mature when I light up. Why shouldn't I puff? All the kids smoke; I don't want to be the creep in the crowd."

Why do you feel as you do concerning this matter of smoking?

The seventh grade classes were very eager to begin this study of values and smoking. Smoking is a timely issue which involves all the students at one time or another.

In the introduction to this project, it was brought out that values are with us and used constantly in our daily life. Much research was done on the part of the students and myself to find the pros and cons of smoking.

To execute the proper instruction, it was necessary to evaluate both sides of the problem very carefully. It was brought out that there are some values to smoking although it is an expensive and dangerous habit.

It was the general feeling of the students in all classes that smoking is a bad habit. Immediate risk to health or to athletic achievement would be far more compelling motivations to quit smoking

than fear of death twenty or thirty years later. Comments were also discussed that maybe teaching in the schools about smoking should start early – perhaps as soon as the fourth or fifth grade – and continue through the junior high and senior high school years. We discussed many of the excuses students use to smoke. What value each excuse had was up to each individual student. Some of these excuses are as follows:

- students say they smoke to be part of the crowd
- students say they smoke because it makes them feel more mature, grown up
- students say they smoke because they feel more sophisticated or glamorous
- students say they smoke because it puts them at ease or relaxes them
- students say they smoke because it helps to keep their weight down
- students say they smoke because their parents do

After much discussion and evaluation concerning these excuses of how each student felt about these statements, we asked ourselves another question: Is the enjoyment you will get from cigarettes really more important than your health or life? Again the class was asked to re-evaluate their beliefs and feelings concerned with this habit.

At this point in the class discussion, I read to the class a condensed story from **Readers Digest**, July 1966. The title of the selection was "The Man Who Wrote His Own Obituary." This was a story of a man who realized the value of not smoking too late. The following is a summary of that story. "Mark Waters, long a reporter for the Honolulu **Star Bulletin**, started his last story January 27. Run it as my obituary, he said on that day. Maybe it will help someone. Four days later he made the final corrections in his copy. On the next day, February 1, in Queens Hospital, Honolulu, he died of lung cancer."

At this point, I passed out the evaluation question: "Why do you feel as you do concerning this matter of smoking?" The students were given about twenty-five minutes of class time to begin to study and collect their thoughts on the question I presented them. This assignment was to be turned in the following day at the end of the class period.

One additional comment should be made. It was difficult to present this question so that the students really saw and examined both sides carefully. Too often students suspect that the teacher and even their parents want them to condemn smoking. This is likely to make them take the opposite side without evaluating both sides.

III. GRADES 7-9: VALUE ISSUES IN THE LEGISLATIVE PROCESS

(Adapted from material prepared by Jeff Shannon and Don Guse at Antigo.)

Major Generalizations:

Every society creates laws. Some laws are designed to promote the common good; other laws protect special interests or groups. Penalties and sanctions are provided for violation of law.

Generalization Variant:

(1st. political science variant listed for grade 7 in **Conceptual Framework**)

Laws are made by all levels of government-school districts, municipalities, states, and national. Each government unit provides means of sanctions; respect for law is essential to government.

Following the teaching of the Congress and its work, the class is divided into two groups representing the House and Senate. Each student is provided with a sheet containing a fictitious bill number, names of representatives sponsoring the bill, and a statement of purpose. An example follows:

H.R. 393. A bill proposed by Representatives Robin and Dobin.

The purpose of this bill is to prevent demonstration against United States policies in Viet Nam and the punishment of anyone violating this law.

The House group holds an open discussion and formulates its version of the bill which is then voted on and submitted to the Senate.

The Senate reviews the House version. As it is unlikely that this group will accept the bill as submitted by the House, a House-Senate Joint Committee is formed and the bill is referred to them. The right of dissent, the limits of dissent, and appropriate forms of government control of dissent are the crucial points for debate.

When the Joint Committee formulates a compromise bill, this is then submitted to both houses for passage. As it is probable that the bill will pass, it can then be submitted to the President (could be teacher) who can either pass it or veto it. If the bill is vetoed, it should return to the House (where it originated) and pass with a 2/3 vote. Same procedure in the Senate.

ROBIN-DOBIN BILL #393

Enacting Clause – The Robin-Dobin Bill #393

concerns the handling of demonstrators against United States policies in Viet Nam.

Be It Known That –

We, Robin and Dobin, the originators of this bill, do here propose that any one person or group of people who publicly demonstrate against United States policies in Viet Nam shall be punished.

The History of Robin-Dobin Bill #393 (as prepared by Mr. Shannon's second hour class)

The House Proposals –

1. A "Group" shall be defined as "up to, including, but not more than ten (10) people".
2. Punishment shall be a $500 fine and 20 days in jail.

The House proposals were passed 4-2 and signed by the Speaker of the House (who was chosen by the group, House)

The Senate Proposals –

1. "Group" shall be defined as "any number of people more than two."
2. "Punishment" refers only to "destructive demonstration," "destructive demonstration" shall herein be known to mean an act resulting in damage or injury to the public."
3. "Punishment" shall be –
   A. Physically and mentally able males 18-40 years of age shall serve one year in service in Viet Nam.
   B. Physically and mentally unable males 18-40 years of age shall serve five years in prison.
   C. Physically and mentally able females 18-40 shall serve as nurses in Viet Nam for one year.
   D. Physically and mentally unable females 18-40 shall serve two and one half years in prison.

House-Senate Joint Committee Proposals –

1. Representatives of the House accepted the Senate's definition of a "group" as being any number of people more than two.
2. Representatives of the Senate accepted the House proposal of a $500 fine in addition to

the two and a half year prison term for both males and females physically unable to be sent to Viet Nam.

The Joint Committee defined a "demonstrator" as any person bearing a sign and or verbally making his dissatisfaction with the Federal Government's policies in Viet Nam known to the public.

The Joint Committee determined that "demonstrators" under the age of 18 be referred to Juvenile Court for judgment of their punishment.

FINAL VERSION OF THE ROBIN-DOBIN BILL #393

Be it known that any number of people amounting to more than two and bearing a sign or signs or verbally making their dissatisfaction with the Federal Government's policies in Viet Nam known to the public shall be punished as follows:

Males 18-40 Physically and mentally able shall serve one year in Viet Nam. All others shall serve five years in prison and pay a $500 fine.

Females 18-40 Physically and mentally able shall serve one year in Viet Nam as nurses. All others shall serve two and one-half years in prison and pay a $500 fine.

Under Age 18 All those defined as "demonstrators" shall be referred to Juvenile Court for judgment of punishment.

President L. B. Shannon vetoed the bill, returning it within the required ten days to the branch of Congress (the House) in which it originated. House overrode veto with required 2/3 majority and Senate passed it unanimously, making it a law.

Desired Result:

A student should see how society creates laws and imposes penalties and sanctions for violation of laws; from such a fictitious bill the class could see the procedure in actuality by following bills being considered in the Congress and the State Legislature. The subject of the proposed bill is controversial and entails basic political values that will arouse discussion among the students.

IV. JUNIOR OR SENIOR HIGH: DEVELOPING A STRATEGY FOR VALUE ANALYSIS:

(Adapted from materials developed by Ed Flynn at Kaukauna High School as part of Project Public Information funded by the U.S. Office of Education).

I. VALUES AND THE SCHOOL

A. Materials: Excerpt from Lykes, "Teachers from Abroad Take a Look at America."
Stimulus words from Postman, Bruner, and McGinnies.
Spranger's six personality types as presented in Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey, Study of Values, 3rd ed., Boston, Houghton Mifflin (c. 1960).

B. Purpose: Values come in clusters; a human being does not hold one value in isolation. Any one value or attitude is part of a complex orientation which includes the individual's relationship to a wide variety of subjects. Specific values, then, are integrated into a complex system and, over a long period of time, form a pattern of personality development.
The purpose of this instructional model is to invite and guide student investigation of some of these attitudinal-value systems. Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey's Study of Values provides a scale for measuring dominant value patterns and a discussion of many common patterns. It forms the basic frame of reference for the selection of materials and the teaching strategy

in this lesson. Case studies which focus primarily on the school as a social institution are also used.

C. Procedures: Some teachers may choose a direct approach to the problem of classifying the dominant value in personality. If this method is desired, the teacher simply has students take the personality test included in Study of Values. The manual explains the procedure, and the test is self-scoring.

In class discussion, review the results and introduce the students to the six categories of values encompassed by this particular classification – theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. The teacher should stress that the six classifications are not rigid but only working tools for inquiry, enabling students to compare various attitudinal-value systems. After this first step, a multitude of strategies becomes available. The following suggestions represent only a small portion of the large vein of possibilities.

Have the students classify the various statements in a selection evaluating or commenting on our educational system. One good selection is Lykes, "Teachers from Abroad Take a Look at America." In this article foreign teachers who participated in the 1965-66 International Teacher Development Program comment on their experiences in our schools. The value implications of many of our educational practices are revealed in such comments as: "Discipline was stricter than in my country," "They learn to keep a distance between themselves and their students," "He has not time to dream," and "They test training, not thinking."

This procedure may open up a host of questions. In what value classification should a secondary school be judged? What values should predominate in a secondary school? What values predominate in the secondary school attended by the students?

A student survey can be utilized. Have each student interview three or four people other than members of the class. The question could be: "What do you think should be the main purpose of a secondary school?" The students will receive a wide variety of answers, some unusable. In class discussion make a list of the more interesting replies and have the students classify these replies into the six attitudinal-value categories. Focus the class discussion on the relationship of values to a social institution such as the school. But here, again, avoid rigidity. If some replies do not seem to fit into the six categories, point out the limitations of the tool. The six classifications are a human invention and, like all human inventions, they have imperfections.

A more indirect method may also be used very effectively. If students have not had experience in classifying human phenomena into functional categories, necessity dictates some familiarization as a first step. Suppose the teacher writes on the blackboard a series of numbers:

4, 7, 10, 22, 91, 14

The teacher then asks the students to arrange these numbers into two groups and label each group. The students may respond:

4, 10, 22, 14, even
7, 91, odd
or
4, 7, one digit
10, 22, 91, 14, two digit

Other arrangements are possible, and the exact grouping the class determines is, of course, not predictable.

The teacher now asks, "Why did you group the numbers this way?" The students say, "Because they are odd and even," or "Because they are one and two digit numbers." The teacher asks, "But are not the numbers within each group different from one another?" Students say, "Yes, but they have something in common." This concept of commonness in the midst of differences should be stressed.

If he chooses, the teacher can develop and utilize other exercises to illustrate this concept. Now the teacher writes on the board:

Theory	Beauty
Useful	Sacred
Loving	Artist
Verify	Compete
Famous	Finance
Prayer	Kindly

The teacher says, "Now arrange these words into six groups and give a label to each group!" The results of this assignment are also unpredictable. But it is unlikely that the students will arrange the words in the six classifications and label them as such. The resulting labels are not as important as the development of the student's appreciation of problems and methods in classifying phenomena.

After this student experience, the teacher says, "As you see, we have many variations, and no one variation is necessarily better than any other. But for our purposes in the future investigation of values, we will arrange these words in the following order with the following labels." The teacher can then develop and explain the basic criteria of the six categories of attitudinal-value systems.

D. Other Activities: 1. Students attend a school board meeting, take notes on what happens and what is said. Later in class they can classify their observations into the six categories.

2. Students interview school personnel on what they think are the most important problems of the school. The students then classify the statements using the six categories.

3. Students interview people on a specific educational question such as sex education and classify the replies.

II. VALUES AND CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN SOCIETY

A. Materials: Donald A. Erickson, "The Plain People vs. the Common Schools." A detailed analysis and history of the continuing clash between our public school system and the Amish. The clash of cultures is clearly developed as well as the legal-political implications of the struggle.

Glendy Culligan, "Bah Humbug, Virginia -- We Don't Know." A colorful presentation of the legal questions now being raised concerning the traditional Christmas pageants and programs in the public schools. Several specific cases are dealt with in the context of recent state and federal court decisions.

B. Purpose: What is so common about the common schools? In one

sense, common means a standardized set of values, attitudinal values as described in Lesson I. What happens when a sub-cultural group such as the Amish confront the common schools and their standardized values? What insights do these confrontations give the student in seeing the relationship between values and education?

This section is designed to widen the student's perspective by showing some of the difficulties encountered when attempts are made to develop a common education for all in a pluralistic society having many sub-cultures and minority groups. Lesson I introduced the student to the concept of attitudinal value categories and oriented him toward the collision of values probably existing in his own school. Lesson II presents a case study focused on a sub-culture, the Amish.

A second case study is based upon the value conflict between minority groups and the question of Christmas ceremonies in the public school.

Both cases represent a clash of values centered on the school. The articles come from contemporary periodicals and seem likely to provoke student discussion. But the specific case studies are not important. Other articles on other minority groups can be used. Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Catholics, and the economically poor all have their differences with the common school. Articles on these disputes, appearing in newspapers and magazines, can form the bases for case studies other than the ones selected here.

C. Procedures: The articles suggest many questions which can be utilized by the teacher to ignite student discussion. Some, but certainly not all, of these questions may be:

1. What values should be taught in a public school?
2. In the article, "The Plain People vs. the Common Schools," What does the word "common" mean to you? What does it mean to the Amish?
3. Should all youth be required to attend public schools?
4. Are private schools a threat to the welfare of the American people?
5. Are religious values taught in the public schools? Should they be taught?
6. Should students who deny the theory of evolution on religious grounds be forced to take a biology course in which evolution is taught?
7. How would you resolve the conflict between the Amish and the common schools?
8. How would you resolve the conflicts over Christmas and other Christian rites disputed in the second article?
9. Do rural societies have values different from those of urban societies?

Role playing is another effective method of working with these materials. Have a group of students play the role of the Amish and have them present to the class their case as they see it. Another group of students can take the role of the public school officers and present their case. The remainder of the class can play the role of a school board, record the values expressed, classify them into the six categories introduced in Lesson I,

and then attempt to resolve the conflict. The same procedure can be used for the second article.

After students have investigated the two articles, the teacher may be able to draw from classroom discussion some specific generalizations concerning values and the public schools. The articles suggest the following possibilities:

1. People try to transmit their values to the young through education.
2. Some people who disagree with the values they think they see in the public schools may try to establish private schools for their children.
3. Some people see private schools as a threat to the general welfare of the nation, a threat to the common good.
4. Some people will attempt to purge the public schools of what they consider to be objectionable values.
5. A standardized nationally controlled school system would require some nation-wide agreement on values.
6. The existence of pluralism in American society creates difficult value choices for the American public schools.
7. A totalitarian state such as Hitler's Germany would solve the problem of pluralism in a way different from the ways used in a democratic state.
8. The more unified a people is in basic values the less dispute there will be over schools.
9. The United States is growing toward a more unified agreement over values and the role of the public schools.
10. Public schools encourage conformity to a common standard of values.

Conflict of values other than in the religious sphere can be utilized. Various political and economic ideologies, represented by various pressure groups, attempt to influence the public schools. These disputes are reported almost daily in current periodicals and can be used by the teacher to broaden the student's perspective on the complexity of the problem of values and the public school.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Allen, F. L., *Big Change*, Bantam (WM1027), 1961.

Allport, G. W., Vernon, P. E., and Lindzey, G., *Study of Values*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1951 and 1961.

Clauss, W. R., "The Humanities: Not a Course, But a Way of Life," *The Clearing House*, May, 1967, pp. 536-538.

Culligan, Glendy, "Bah Humbug, Virginia—We Don't Know," *American Education*, January, 1967, pp. 14-17.

Erickson, Donald A., "The Plain People vs. the Common Schools," *Saturday Review*, November 19, 1966, pp. 85-87.

Lykes, Richard W., "Teachers From Abroad Take a Look at America," *American Education*, September, 1966, pp. 14-19.

McDonald, Frederick J., *Educational Psychology*, Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., p. 362. Stimulus words representing six categories, from Postman, Bruner, and McGinnies, which McDonald footnotes as: L. Postman, J. S. Bruner, and E. McGinnies, "Personal Values and Selective Factors in Perception," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 43, (1948), pp. 142-154.

"The Wonderous World of 1990 — Outlook for Young People," *U.S. News and World Report*, January 30, 1967, pp. 62-66.

[illegible]0 Years at a Glance," *American Education*, March, 1967. pp. 7-13.

[illegible]hat's Wrong with Children is Parents, Doctor Says," *Milwaukee Journal*, May 12, 1967, p. 9, Section B.

V. PRIMARY GRADES: USING PICTURES AS A BASIS FOR VALUE DECISION

The volume **Discussion Pictures for Beginning Social Studies** by Raymond Muessig (Harper and Row, 1967) is an invaluable source of suggestions for value-centered discussion in the elementary school. While any teacher will be able to develop many of his own lessons, there is a very helpful Teacher's Guide which asserts that among the range of objectives served by discussion pictures are these especially related to feelings, attitudes, beliefs, and values:

1. He is increasingly curious about himself and about others nearby and far away.
2. He appreciates and cherishes human diversities. He states that differences in people are interesting, natural, and worthy of study and understanding. He expresses a feeling of kinship with other persons and sees relationships between his actions and feelings and theirs. He does not reject others because their ways of life are unlike his own.
3. He sees people as individuals rather than as identical parts of the groups to which they belong and the cultures in which they live. He avoids judgments based upon initial impressions and superficial characteristics, such as facial features, skin color and dress.
4. He believes that people with different backgrounds, interests, experiences, abilities and persuasions can contribute to the way of life of a culture or society. He appreciates people's diverse contributions in educational, religious, humanitarian, technological, scientific and artistic realms. He hopes that he will enrich the lives of others by his thoughts and actions.
5. He knows and accepts himself. He examines his own ideas, feelings, talents, abilities, shortcomings, and aspirations with an eye toward self-improvement and self-realization. He develops increased individuality, autonomy and self-confidence; and he wants others to have the opportunity to become their own best selves.
6. He views learning as an adventure, a search, a process, rather than just an exposure to things already known to others.
7. He tries to see things as others see them; he "feels" for others; he empathizes with them; and he identifies with them. He expresses a genuine concern for others and develops more and more of a social conscience. He has an ever-increasing commitment to the basic rights of man. He wants freedom and privileges for himself and others, but he recognizes that there must be accompanying responsibilities and duties. He believes that every person should have a chance to pursue happiness, as he defines it, in his own way, so long as he does not interfere with the happiness of others. He respects laws developed through democratic procedures. He abides by majority decisions but protects the right of minorities to be heard and to become majorities through orderly processes, if their arguments are sufficiently persuasive.
8. He welcomes new experiences and looks forward to the challenges tomorrow will bring. He has a purposeful approach toward life. He believes the human condition can be improved, if man cares and tries hard enough to improve it. He feels that people can achieve many things through cooperative endeavors.
9. He is aware of his physical environment and its properties, appeals, assets, and limitations. He has a feel-

ing for the natural beauty that surrounds him. He is concerned about the conservation of natural resources. He has a humane approach to animals and the contribution they can make to his way of life.

10. He finds sufficient challenge, purpose, and satisfaction in life to have an inner security even though he may be subjected to many changes, frustrations and disappointments. He aids others around him in their search for meaning and stability.
11. He feels wanted and needed because he is a unique person with dignity and worth. He establishes positive, rewarding relationships with others around him. He is able to reach out to them and to preserve rich relationships with them.

While it isn't possible here to reproduce the pictures which are associated with this approach, the readers can envision the strategy used in the classroom by these excerpts from the **Teacher's Guide.**

Theme 6 – Man's need for acceptance, respect, companionship, belonging, and love.

Because of its significance, universality, potential appeal, and ease of understanding for young children, the idea of man's need for acceptance, respect, companionship, belonging, and love was one of the first themes considered for this series.

Picture A – Children will probably point out in picture A the friendship between the two children. They may observe that the two companions seem very small against the big fence and the tall buildings and that the pair of friends could be happy to have each other. They could point out that there may not be many places to play in their neighborhood, but that if one has a good friend, playing can be fun anyway.

Picture B – The boys in picture B are enjoying each other's company at a summer camp. Pupils may want to talk about what they do during the summer with their friends.

Picture C – Children should identify easily with the three Swedish boys in 6C. They may state that there are some things one can do with friends that he cannot do by himself and that certain activities require, or are enriched by, the participation of others.

Picture D – When children first look at 6D they may see and discuss only the five children in the foreground, what they are doing, how they feel, and so on. In time, someone in the class will notice the little girl in the background. Children may have varied reactions with reference to this little girl. One child may identify with her and see things from her point of view – that she wants to play with the children in the circle but does not know anyone in the group and is timid about joining. Another child may say that the little girl does not know how to play the game and wonders whether the children will show her how to play.

Another child may see things from the perspective of the group – the children in the circle have not seen the little girl yet; they will invite her to join them as soon as they see her. Some child may say that the children in the circle have played with the little girl before, but they would rather not have the little girl join them because she is too "bossy." Sooner or later, some child will probably observe that it is hard to be on the outside of something looking in, or that at times it is more fun to be with others than to be by one's self.

Characteristics of a good playmate or good group member or friend may be identified by the class as they talk about this picture. To foster human relations and group process skills and attitudes, the teacher may want to help the children list some of these characteristics on a class experience chart.

Picture E – A slightly different dimension to 6D could be brought out by the use of 6E. Here are two girls on the outside looking in, and children may say that whether the two girls join the others or not, they still have each other's company. They may also mention some games that can be played and enjoyed with others on equipment such as that shown in the photograph. Some classes may extend a discussion of the pictures in this set to include the companionship and love available in the home, whether one has close friends or not.

Virtually all of the 18 themes developed in the volume have some relationships to the value area.

VI. JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH: DEVELOPING AN APPROACH TO THE ANALYSIS OF THE AMERICAN VALUE SYSTEM IN A U.S. HISTORY COURSE

(Adapted from material prepared and taught by Brother Dennis Pahl)

This material was developed around Gunnar Myrdal's analysis of the American value system (see bibliography for references to Myrdal's theory). It attempts to translate Myrdal's theory into a teaching strategy. The basic text is Unit VI of **Discovering American History** by Kownslar and Frizzle. The stated objectives of the series of lessons are these:

1. Have students identify the general valuations of the American creed as expressed by Myrdal
2. Have students determine whether or not they accept the values that make up the creed
3. Identify related specific values held by individuals
4. Recognize that conflict may exist between general and specific values
5. Attempt to clarify and resolve one or more such conflicts in class

Lesson I. Ask students to identify the general valuations held by members of a basketball team desiring to win the championship (or some similar thing relevant to the students in a particular class). Place on the board the list developed by the students, which might look like this:

Creed for a Champion Team

Strong desire to win
All players willing to give 100%
All players cooperate with each other
Have respect for and confidence in the coach
Follow training rules
Have faith in themselves

Ask students to cite any general valuation they believe most Americans accept as being essential to a good society. The notion of such valuations is new to the students and some probing and explanation may be needed. An alternative is to simply place Myrdal's six categories on the board – human dignity, political equality, equal opportunity, humanitarianism, social equality, and equality of justice. As time permits, work with the class in clarifying and defining each of these categories. Homework: Copy the six categories and list two or more examples of values that fall under each.

Lesson II. One student goes to the board, lists the six categories, and fills in the examples provided by the students from their homework. The teacher then leads a discussion in which the students are asked to consider which of these values they accept and which they reject. This will usually lead into a consideration of the meanings of terms such as justice and equality. Near the end of the period the teacher suggests that a person's actions or comments may actually be inconsistent with his professed general beliefs. The following chart is distributed to the students and for homework they are asked to give examples of statements they have heard or actions they have seen which conflict with the general valuations.

General Valuations	Statements That Conflict	Actions That Conflict
All men should be treated with respect		
All men have a right to run for elective office		
All men are equal regardless of race		
All men should help their fellows in time of need		

Lesson III. The bulk of the period is spent in discussing the conflicts that appear to exist between the general valuations and the actions of individuals. Near the end of the period excerpts are distributed from "Address of the Hon. John C. Calhoun, In the Senate of U.S., On the Subject of Slavery, March 4, 1850," and from "Mr. Webster's Speech In the Senate of the U.S., March 7, 1850, On the Slavery Compromise." As homework the students are asked to identify with a C in the margin those statements which are consistent with the American Creed and an I by those statements which are inconsistent.

Lesson IV. The entire period is spent in analyzing the two speeches and their consistency with the American Creed. Typically the students will be bothered by the statements made by Webster which appear to be contrary to the American Creed.

Lesson V. At the start of the period the students are given an excerpt from congressional legislation entitled "An Act to Amend and Supplementary to the Act entitled 'An Act Respecting Fugitives from Justice, and Persons Escaping from the Service of their Masters'." Various students read sections of the text aloud. The reading is stopped as students recognize what they believe to be provisions consistent or inconsistent with the creed. This is followed by general discussion of the possibility of laws enacted by Congress being contrary to the Creed. The questions of individual and group conduct then become relevant. Should laws be obeyed? Were illegal actions of the abolitionists acceptable? Many contemporary illustrations of the issues can be brought into the discussion.

Lesson VI. A recording of the Dred Scott case is played. Excerpts of **Dred Scott versus John F. A. Sanford** are handed out. This is read and discussed as in the previous lesson. Students conclude that some of the opinions expressed by the Supreme Court were inconsistent with the Creed. This is directed into a discussion of current inconsistencies in such areas as housing, education and job opportunities. At the end of the period excerpts are given the students from "The Second Joint Debate Held by Lincoln--Douglas at Freeport on August 27, 1858." Students are to analyze this for the next day.

Lesson VII. The class is divided into small discussion groups and given 40 minutes to develop a position on the extent to which the statements made by Lincoln and Douglas are consistent with the American Creed. A chairman reports for each group and must defend the position taken by his group. One group is able to report and a heated discussion follows as its group defends its view.

Lesson VIII. Entire period is taken up by the reports from each group and the defense of these reports. Great consternation develops over Lincoln and his views. Near the end of the period the teacher says: "We have been dis-

covering that in the 1850's statements were made and actions taken regarding Negroes that were in conflict with the general valuations of the American Creed. Is this also the case in the 1970's?" A sheet is distributed to each student headed "Conflicts With the American Creed." The instructions are to list for the next day's class three or more statements you have made or heard or actions you have taken or seen respecting Negroes that were in conflict with the Creed.

Lesson IX. Examples of the specific actions are supplied by the students and placed on the board for discussion. An effort is made to extract the valuation they imply and to relate them to the general valuation with which they seem to be in conflict.

This series of lessons could be followed up in many ways. It is not suggested that teachers should follow rigidly the series of lessons suggested above but they do indicate a basic strategy as well as several specific techniques that might be used.

VII. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL: AN ADAPTATION OF THE COMPARATIVE CULTURE APPROACH

(Adapted from a proposal for a course in international relations prepared by Gilbert Sutherland at Neenah. Only the first unit is given here but it is suggestive of the approach used throughout the course.)

Unit I -- Introduction to International Relations

In the Introduction to International Relations, students will begin to think seriously about international relations. The introductory approach will be to examine some fundamental questions about man, namely: Is man the highest form of life? Why? What are the differences between man and the animals? Is there such a thing as the nature of man? Is man basically warlike? Are there certain universals, or kinds of values, found in all cultures? Is there anything upon which man can agree? What is culture? Are values relative to time, place, and circumstance? Is there such a thing as an ideal culture? What are the major sources of tension in our world today?

In addition, this introduction will begin to give students an idea of what is meant by international relations, to show them that international relations are very complex but that all nations in the modern world are part of a global interdependent system.

Objectives

To help students understand:

1. What we mean when we talk of international relations
2. What is involved in international relations
3. What the factors are which shape international relations today
4. That international relations are very complex and cannot be dealt with simply
5. The factors which contribute to world tensions today

This introductory unit is also intended to:

1. Get students to question some of their own values and ideas
   and
2. Introduce students to serious thought about international relations and the relationships between man in the world today

Basic Concepts

1. Patterns of behavior are largely products of the past. In order to arrive at solutions to new problems this must be taken into account.
2. Each impression of an event is influenced by the experience and culture of the observer.
3. Human nature is basically similar throughout the world, but humans

take on the characteristics of their culture.

4. All nations in the modern world are part of a global interdependent system of economic, sociological, cultural and political life.

The following questions may be used to serve the basic objectives of the introductory unit:

1. What, if any differences exist between Man and the other animals?
2. Is Man really the highest form of life? Why?
3. Is it foolish to ask – why can't Man behave more like animals?
4. Is it possible to conclude that there are certain universals, or kinds of values found in all cultures? Are there any absolutes which apply equally to all societies?
5. Would you agree that all values are relative to time, place, and circumstance?
6. Would you say that there is such a thing as an ideal culture? Do we, as Americans, have an ideal culture? How do we violate this ideal?
7. Would it be wrong to assume that all culture patterns are equally "good" or that "one culture is as good as another"? Why?
8. How do you respond to this concept? "Practices and beliefs must always be evaluated within the cultural context in which they occur."
9. Do you agree that the ways of any people are entitled to respect as long as they do not do violence to others?
10. Is there such thing as "the nature of man"? How would you describe this nature? Would you say that it is part of man's nature to be warlike?
11. What are the important boundary lines between the peoples of this world? (Sources of tension.) Which ones do you feel are most important? Why?
12. Comment on this statement: "We are not our brother's keepers. We should mind our own business. Our nation has become great by hard work on the part of our citizens. If other nations followed our example, they would not have to ask us for help."
13. Is there a "best" system of government? Explain.
14. If you were responsible for determining foreign policy, are there any principles or ideological goals you would seek at "all costs"? What do you mean by "all cost"?
15. It has been said that the world situation is a maker of United States foreign policy. How would you describe the "world situation"? To what extent does our nation determine the world situation? What are the other factors which determine the world situation?
16. What factors influence your opinion regarding foreign affairs? To what extent are you free to make up your own mind about directions our foreign policy should take?
17. Should foreign policy-making be left to the "experts"? What roles can and should informed citizens play in the making of foreign policy?
18. George Washington in his Farewell Address of 1796 said: "The great rule of conduct for us in regard to foreign nations, is to have . . . as little political connections as possible. Europe (and the world) has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or very remote relation. Hence she (and they) must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign for our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be

unwise in ourselves to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties . . ." Do you believe that Washington's words apply to our role in the world today? Why?

19. Are there any old myths which tend to hamper our thinking about international affairs? What are they? What are the realities?

READINGS FOR UNIT I – INTRODUCTION TO INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

1. Benedict, Ruth, *Patterns of Culture*, Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton-Mifflin, Chapter 1.
2. Braisted, P. J. (Ed.), *Cultural Affairs and Foreign Relations*, American Assembly, New York, New York: Columbia Books, Columbia University.
3. Brown, Ina Corinne, *Understanding Other Cultures*, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963, Chapters 1, 10.
4. Fulbright, J. William, *Old Myths and New Realities*, New York: Random, 1964.
5. Kluckhohn, Clyde, *Mirror for Man*, New York: McGraw, 1949, Chapters 5, 8, 10.
6. Montagu, Ashley, *Man in Process*, New York: New American Library, Chapters 6, 8, 9, 11.
7. Murdock, George Peter, *Culture and Society*, Essays, "The Science of Culture," "Fundamental Characteristics of Culture," University of Pittsburgh Press, 1965.
8. Sutherland, Gilbert W., "The World is too much with Us," unpublished paper, Neenah High School, Neenah, Wisconsin.

VIII. UPPER LEVEL ELEMENTARY THROUGH HIGH SCHOOL – DETERMINING THE VALUES STUDENTS HOLD

(Adapted from material developed by the staff at James Madison Memorial High School, Madison)

The teacher hands out the descriptions of several persons as given below. The students are instructed to spend a few minutes reading over the descriptions and make a decision based on the following: "These ten people are all that remain on an island in the Aegean Sea which is threatened with destruction by an active volcano. The last small plane has landed and only three people can be evacuated. The rest are doomed. Which three would you select to evacuate"?

The teacher places the names of the ten people on the board and gathers the student's decisions, keeping a tally on the board. The decisions tend to cluster their choices. A discussion follows in which the students analyze why they decided to ignore one person while saving another. The students may discover that they value youth, certain types of talent, and family life, for example. In any case, they begin to consider what values reside behind the choices they make. A teacher or group of teachers can easily construct another set of descriptions that may suit differing age levels or instructional purposes.

REVEREND ALAN CRITTEN: Methodist minister, 45 years old, married, three children, has worked in Methodist missions in Iran and Pakistan, an accomplished organist, active in several "better care for the aged" marches in Miami, popular on Miami university campus – particularly with student radicals who rallied to his cause with a number of peaceful marches and demonstrations.

JUDY TILDEN: high school student, 16, on vacation with parents who are concerned with her health; she has a chronic lung problem which may or may not lead to her early death because of her susceptibility to TB, pneumonia, and other lung disorders, she is an excellent student interested in science and music.

RALPH TILDEN: father of Judy, 42, electronics engineer, self-employed, has created several circuit designs used by computer manufacturers and is considered an electronics genius. Owns patents

on several of these designs and from them has made a great deal of money; believes every man should be his own boss and earn his own way, detests people who are critical of American foreign policy, is a "hawk" on Vietnam and a member of the John Birch Society.

HELEN TILDEN: wife of Ralph and mother of Judy, housewife, 41, a former school teacher active in civic affairs, has far different political philosophy from her husband, worked hard for the election of several liberal politicians in her community, frequently serves on committees concerned with changing state and local tax structures, believes that those who make large incomes should pay much more in taxes than those with low incomes; she is in very good health.

JOAN MOORE: registered nurse, single, 25, on first vacation in three years, works in St. Louis hospital in intensive care ward for patients with serious heart problems, well-skilled with various electronic apparatuses for monitering heart ailments and stimulating heart action, engaged to be married in two months to university geography professor.

PHILIP HENDERSON: art student at University of Indiana, 22, in good health though run down because of long hours and poor eating habits during periods of creativity, has already received considerable attention as promising artist through several private showings in the mid-west, is very shy and careless about personal grooming (he seldom bathes), occasionally experiments with mind-expanding drugs to bring new forms to his art, has few interests outside art but regularly works in art classes for emotionally disturbed patients in a mental hospital, has come to island to think and paint.

THOMAS STARK: retired Iowa farmer, 66, in excellent health, has recently volunteered for Peace Corps and is vacationing with his granddaughter before taking an assignment in Colombia, will work with impoverished farmers on irrigation and poultry-raising projects, has great knowledge of corn farming and raising chickens, wife died one year ago and he wishes to spend several years helping poor farmers in other nations.

CINDY STARK: granddaughter of Thomas, 4 years old, bright child who loves bugs, turtles and snakes, affectionate girl, who hates to see anything hurt and is always nursing sick animals.

FREDERICK HESS: plumber, 34, good health, married father of five, secretary to his local union, a hard worker and skillful plumber, active Roman Catholic who works with teenagers in his church, well-known in his county Democratic party.

VIRGINIA HESS: wife of Frederick, 34, good health, mother of five, librarian in legal library in county court house, considered a good mother, head of neighborhood improvement association which pushed city into creating a new park area and improving trash pick-up throughout the community, has helped organize and plan the Community Chest drive for three of the last five years.

Part IV

Summary

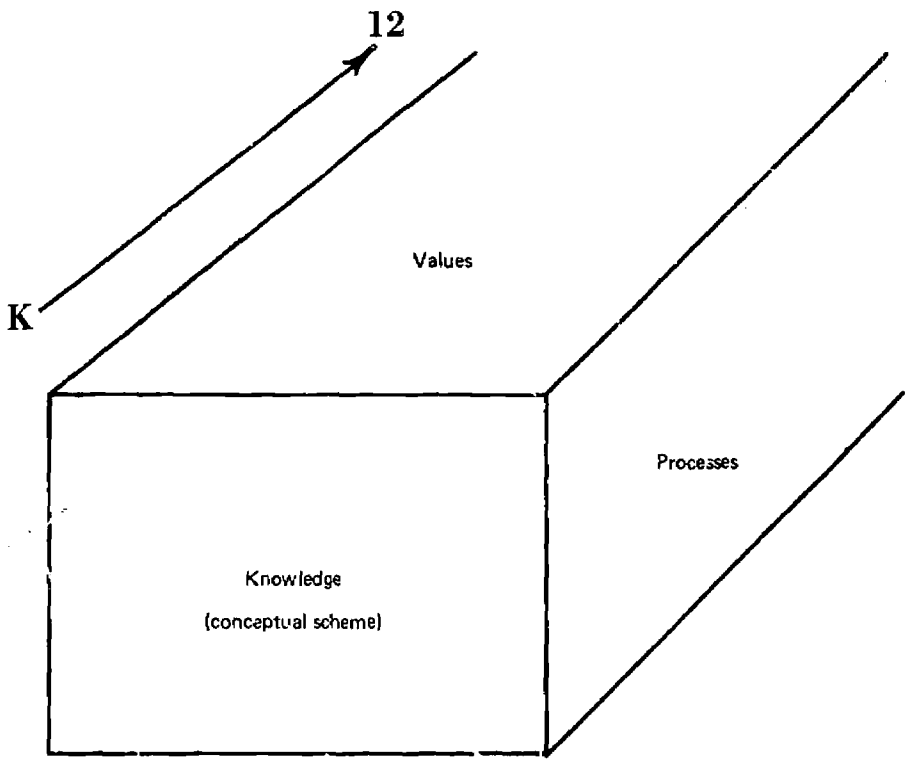
Americans, like all humans, are social creatures. We live together in groups that range in size from a family of two or three to a nation of some 205 million people. Being a successful group member and at the same time a self-actualizing individual are imperatives for all members of our society. The forces of change in all aspects of living and working that have characterized recent American history have created a new imperative for the schools in their task of educating students for citizenship. Students must become more knowledgeable, generally, about the conditions, problems and realities surrounding them, and must, at the same time, become skillful in the use of their knowledge. Satisfying this demand is complicated, however, by the fact that change occurs so rapidly that new knowledge confronts man even before he can understand the past. With each passing year we can assume that a smaller portion of knowledge will be learned. Thus, knowledge must be viewed not only as a product but also as a tool to be applied toward the solution of personal and social problems in a world of constantly accelerating rates of change. Students will need more than ever before to develop, possess and use the rational powers, skills of analysis, methods of inquiry and ways of discovering meaning for themselves to cope with present and future problems and conditions of life which cannot be foreseen, or perhaps, even imagined today.

If a social studies program is to reflect the above concerns of man's understanding and interrelationship with his total environment, it becomes necessary that said social studies program give attention to not only knowledge and values, but to cognitive inquiry processes and the processes of valuing.

This publication has presented a discussion of elements that make up a meaningful social studies program – a program which emphasizes reflective thought and the tools of rational decision making.

It is understood by the State Social Studies Curriculum Committee that the task of curriculum development and instructional improvement is never ending. Change will not just happen in the social studies; it must be planned, organized and worked for by all members of the profession. Efforts are now underway to develop further information on human relations and environmental education, as well as implementation and evaluation strategies.

The dream of the "new" social studies is being translated into reality all over Wisconsin, and it is the hope of the State Committee that this publication, along with those to follow, will aid in the translation process.



Appendix A

Generalizations Incorporating Major Social Studies Concepts*

History

I. **Change** is inevitable, and the rate of change is uneven among and within societies.

II. Human experience is both continuous and interrelated (**continuity**).

III. Acts and events have both causes and consequences which are never simple and often complex (**cause and effect**).

IV. People tend to judge or interpret the past in the light of their own times and experience (**nature of evidence**).

V. Each civilization has certain significant values and beliefs that evolve out of the developing culture, and in turn, influence its growth and development.

Anthropology — Sociology

I. **Man** is a unique being, and while each individual is unique in some ways, greater similarities exist among men than dissimilarities.

II. Man has unique, common needs which are met within a social setting through a membership in primary and secondary

*Major concepts are in bold face. The generalizations listed here are taken from *A Conceptual Framework for the Social Studies in Wisconsin Schools*, publication #7-145 of the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wisconsin, price: $1.00.

groups (social being).

III. Within these groups man develops accepted ways and means of meeting his needs and coping with the problems of living in groups. These ways and means are called institutions.

IV. A society's whole system of institutions, including the artifacts it produces, constitutes its culture. All cultures have some common characteristics called cultural universals.

V. Individuals learn accepted ways of perceiving, thinking and behaving from their culture and in turn can effect changes in that culture as it becomes inefficient or self-defeating in meeting the needs of the society it serves (acculturation, assimilation, patterning of behavior).

VI. This cultural change is a continuous and accelerating process, effected through invention and borrowing. Change in one facet of a culture brings about a change throughout that culture (cultural change).

Political Science

I. Every society creates laws. Penalties and sanctions are provided for violations of law.

II. Governments are established by men to provide protection and services. In some governments people delegate the authority; in others authority is imposed (philosophy — ideology).

III. Democracy is government in which decision making is in the hands of the people who make their desires known through voting, political parties and pressure groups. Democracy seeks to protect the rights of individuals and minority groups.

IV. Citizenship involves varying degrees of obligations and privileges depending upon the form of government. An active, educated citizenry is essential to a democracy (leadership).

V. There is a division of responsibility and an interdependence at all levels of government; local, state and national. All nations of the world are becoming more interdependent (institutions).

Economics

I. The conflict between unlimited wants and limited natural and human resources is the basic economic problem. Scarcity still persists in the world today.

II. Man constantly tries to narrow the gap between limited resources and unlimited wants. Geographical, occupational and technological specialization (division of work) are the results of his desire to produce more, better and faster.

III. Specialization leads to interdependence which demands a market (price) where buyers and sellers can meet. The market, in turn, needs money which will serve as a medium of exchange, measure of value and a store of value.

IV. All of mankind is faced with four economic decisions: (1) what and how much to produce? (2) how much and in what way land (natural resources), labor and management and capital (tools) are to be used for production; (3) are the goods and services to be used for further production or immediate consumption? (4) who shall receive the products and in what proportion? (distribution).

V. Public policy, derived from a people's value system, modifies the operation of the market to promote economic growth, stability and security while attempting to minimize restrictions and injustices (busness cycles).

Geography

I. Spatial relationship exists between any place on earth and all other places. A relationship between two or more locations involves direction, distance and time.

II. Maps are representations of all or parts of the earth. They are used to record and analyze the spatial distributions and relationships of earth features and of people and their life on the earth.

III. Regions refers to an area delimited significantly different from other areas on the basis of one or more selected physical or cultural characteristics.

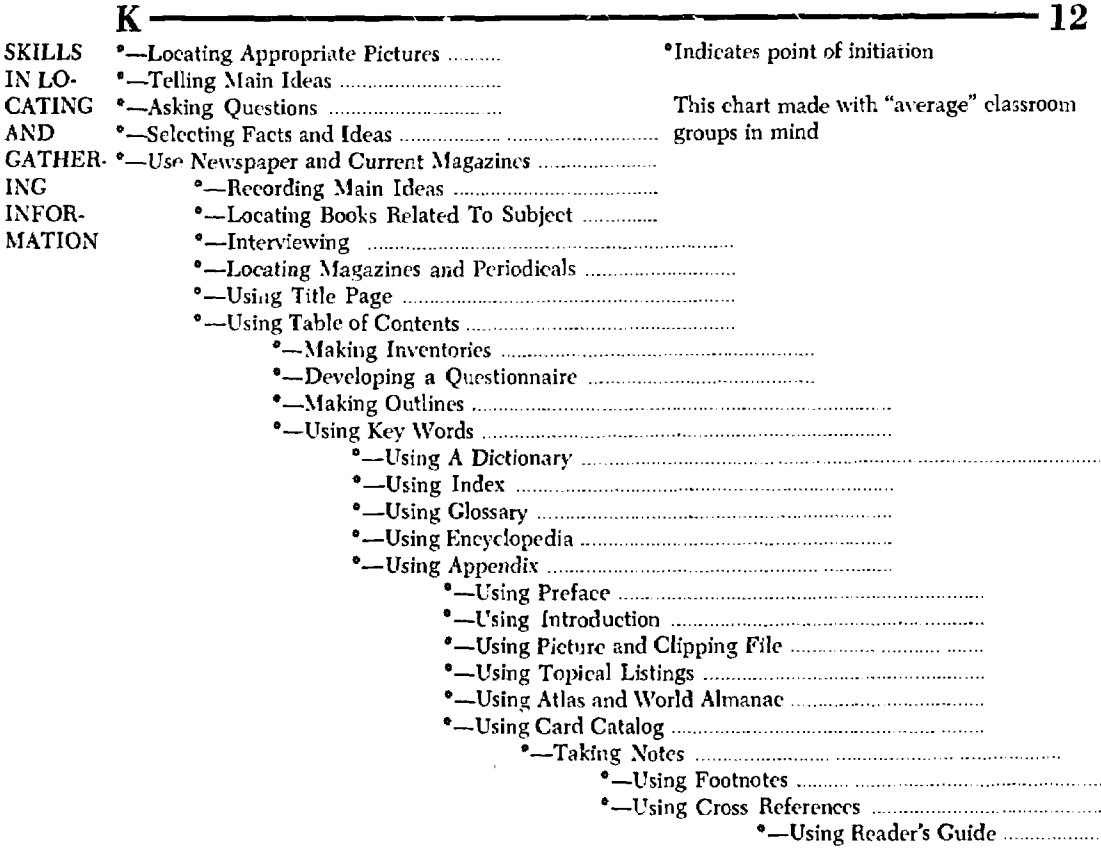
IV. Geographic linkage is evident among

countless human settlements through the exchange of messages, goods and services.

V. New geographies are created as people develop new ideas and technology, as their appraisal and use of earth spaces change. They rearrange themselves, their activities and their creations over the earth and even modify features of the earth itself.

Appendix B

Skills In Social Studies Education



K — 12

SKILLS IN PROBLEM SOLVING AND CRITICAL THINKING

(A) Analyzing and Evaluating Information

- *—Listening Intently
- *—Identifying Difficulties and Problems
  - *—Interpreting Titles
  - *—Re-Reading for Clarification
    - *—Checking with Other Sources
    - *—Differentiating Fact From Opinion
    - *—Determining How To Arrange and Organize Data
      - *—Interpreting Pictures, Graphs, Tables
        - *—Identifying Sources
        - *—Identifying Emotional Words
          - *—Pointing Out False Ideas
          - *—Evaluating Speaker's Qualifications
          - *—Detecting Evidence of Propaganda

(B) Organizing Ideas

- *—Recounting Experiences
  - *—Placing Ideas In Order
  - *—Following Directions
  - *—Separating Relevant From Unrelated Ideas
  - *—Keeping To The Point
  - *—Selecting Appropriate Titles
    - *—Listing
    - *—Using Technical Terms
      - *—Describing Important People and Events
      - *—Using Outlines
      - *—Grouping Related Ideas
        - *—Distinguishing Main Points
        - *—Placing Events in Sequence
        - *—Defining and Introducing A Topic
        - *—Using Topic Sentences
        - *—Checking Meaning of Vocabulary
        - *—Presenting Conflicting Views and Statements
        - *—Skimming and Summarizing Materials
          - *—Making Bibliographies
            - *—Making Footnotes

(C) Reaching a Constructive Compromise SKILLS

- *—Seeing Rights As A Majority Rule Principle
  - *—Seeing Cause and Effect Relationships
  - *—Comparing Problems With Previous Experiences
    - *—Recognizing What Inferences May Be Made
    - *—Suggesting Solutions
      - *—Discovering Compromise That Enables Progress Without Destroying Basic Rights and Institutions

IN INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AND GROUP PARTICIPATION

- •—Engaging In Fair Play
- •—Taking Turns
- •—Following Rules and Laws
- •—Listening To Reason
- •—Withholding Judgment Until Facts Are Known
- •—Observing Actions Of Others
- •—Developing Courteous Behavior
- •—Learning How To Disagree
- •—Giving Constructive Criticism
- •—Finding Ways To Include Newcomers
- •—Introducing People
- •—Inviting People
- •—Planning and Contributing Ideas
- •—Dividing Responsibilities
- •—Keeping To The Task
- •—Showing Appreciation Of Other's Efforts
- •—Making Choices and Decisions
  - •—Handling Interruptions
  - •—Suggesting Alternatives
  - •—Anticipating Consequence Of Group Discussion Or Action
    - •—Defending A Report
      - •—Suggesting Means Of Group Evaluation
        - •—Following Parliamentary Procedure

SPECIFIC MAP AND GLOBE SKILLS

- •—Orienting One's Direction
- •—Learning To Make Map Plans
- •—Devising Symbols For Maps And Globes
- •—Interpreting Flat Maps
  - •—Learning Names Of Cardinal Directions
  - •—Becoming Familiar With Map Symbols
  - •—Interpreting Map Symbols
  - •—Interpreting Political Maps
    - •—Interpreting Product Maps
    - •—Locating Places On Maps And Globes
    - •—Tracing Routes
    - •—Interpreting Topographic Features
    - •—Interpreting Scale Of Miles
    - •—Interpreting Weather Maps
      - •—Using Parallels And Meridians
      - •—Interpreting Road Maps — Town — State
      - •—Interpreting Outer Space Maps
        - •—Interpreting Degree Of Latitude Into Miles
        - •—Interpreting Degree Of Longitude Into Time
        - •—Interpreting Polar Projection Maps

TIME AND SPATIAL RELATIONSHIP SKILLS

- •—Relating Dates To Personal Experiences
- •—Making Use Of Calendar
  - •—Developing Critical Thinking, About Events And Dates
    - •—Developing And Using Vocabulary Of Time Expressions
    - •—Placing Related Events In Chronological Order
    - •—Developing Numerical Chronology

Appendix C

Bibliography

American Library Association, *Building Together.* American Library Association, 1960. "A selected reading list for schools and youth groups to use in the education of boys and girls for social responsibility. Illustrated in stories, biography and sharing, generosity, thoughtfulness of others, racial understanding in our own and other lands."

Anthropology Curriculum Study Project. 5632 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60637. Many of the materials developed by this project are very useful in dealing with values. As new materials are being produced each year it is not possible to list all that are available. ACSP has arranged for Macmillan to publish the following: Alice Marriotte, *Kiowa Years* and *Kiowa Profile;* Hazel Hertzberg, *The Great Tree and the Longhouse;* Robert Hanvey, *The Idea of Liberty in American Culture;* and James Gallagher, *An Annotated Bibliography of Anthropological Materials for High School Use.* Many area study units are being developed as well as a semester course titled "Patems in Human History."

Ausubel, David P., *Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

————,*The Psychology of Meaningful Verbal Learning.* New York: Grune and Stratton, 1963, 255 pp. (Describes meaningful learning as building and altering cognitive structures.)

Berg, Harry D. (Ed.), *Evaluation in Social Studies.* Washington, D.C.: NCSS, Thirty-Fifth Yearbook, 1965, 250 pp., $5; Paper, $4.

Bill of Rights. A series of motion pictures dealing with "Justice, Liberty and Law," "Speech and Protest," "Search and Privacy," and "Interrogation and Counsel." Churchill Films, 662 North Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles, California 90069. Each film is about 22 minutes and appropriate for junior high and above. The films are correlated with *The Bill of Rights: Sourcebook* and *The Bill of Rights: Handbook:* available from Benziger Brothers, Inc., New York. The films are very useful either with the textbooks or separately. Their primary purpose is to pose for the viewer a value conflict. The discussion and solution is left for the class and teacher to develop.

Bloom, Benjamin S. (Ed.), *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals* (Handbook I: Cognitive Domain). New York: David McKay Co., 1956.

Brownell, William A., and Hendrickson, Gordon, "How Children Learn Information, Concepts and Generalizations," *Learning and Instruction.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, Forty-Ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, 1950.

Bruner, Jerome S., *On Knowing.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1964.

————, *The Process of Education.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1960.

————, Goodnow, Jacqueline J., and George A. Austin. *A Study of Thinking,* New York: Science Editions, Inc., 1962.

Byers, Joe L., "Verbal and Concept Learning," *Review of Educational Research: Growth, Development and Learning.* Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association, Volume XXXVII, No. 5, December 1967, pp. 494-513.

Carpenter, Helen McCracken (Ed.), *Skill Development in Social Studies.* Washington, D.C.: Thirty-Third Yearbook, NCSS, 1963, 332 pp., $5; Paper, $4.

Clements, Fielder, Tabachnick, and Bobbs, *Social Study: Inquiry in Elementary Classrooms.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1966. (An excellent discussion of what the "new" social studies means in the elementary school.)

Conceptual Framework for the Social Studies. Madison, Wisconsin: State Department of Public Instruction, 1967, 36 pp., $1.

Estvan, Frank, *Social Studies in a Changing World,* Chicago: Harcourt, Brace, & World, Inc., 1968.

Fenton, Edwin. *Teaching the New Social Studies in Secondary Schools: An Inductive Approach.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966, $8.75. (One of the first important works in the new social studies.)

————. *The New Social Studies,* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967, 144 pp., $3.95. (An overview of the new social studies.)

Ford G. W., and Lawrence Pugno (Eds.), *The Structure of Knowledge and the Curriculum.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1964. (Readings that help show a relationship between structure and the curriculum.)

Robert M., *The Conditions of Learning.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., (A "foundation" read-

ing for anyone concerned with the nature of learning.)

Hanna, Paul R., and Lee, John R., "Generalizations from the Social Sciences," *Social Studies in Elementary Schools.* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, Thirty-Second Yearbook, 1962, pp. 62-89.

Hess, Robert D., and Judith V. Torney, *The Development of Political Attitudes in Children.* Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967. (A summary of the recent body of research which tells us a good deal about what children believe concerning the government, political values, etc. Required reading for persons engaged in the development of social studies curriculum.)

Hills, Penney Chapin, and L. Rust Hills. *How We Live; Contemporary Life in Contemporary Fiction.* New York: Macmillan, 1968. (A very large anthology of 56 stories which depicts the people of this country as they live their lives. Many have great potential for vividly portraying a moral or value issue. For use primarily with high school students.)

Hunt, Maurice, and Lawrence Metcalf. *Teaching High School Social Studies.* New York: Harper and Row, 1968 (Second Edition), Chapters 1, 6, 12-19. (Develops a basic position and teaching strategy in the value area. The final chapters are analyses of several major problem areas that might be used in discussing values.)

Jarolimek and Walsh, *Readings for Social Studies in Elementary Education.* New York: Macmillan, 1969. (Many articles include "how-to-do" suggestions; others give excellent background materials for making decisions about teaching social studies.)

Joyce, Bruce R., *Strategies for Elementary Social Science Education.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965, 302 pp., $5.50. (An excellent "how-to-do" book.)

"Judgment." Case studies and teachers guides for analysis of legal cases dealing with matters of particular concern at the present time. These cases appear periodically as a supplement in *Social Education.* Information on all cases developed to date and prices can be obtained from Civic Education Service, 1933 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Kenworthy, Leonard S., *Social Studies Curriculum and Methods: A Topical Bibliography of National Council for the Social Studies Publications 1955-62.* Washington, D.C.: NCSS, 1963, 44 pp., $1.

Klausmier, Herbert J. and others, "Definition of a Concept," *Technical Report No. 1: Concept Learning and Problem Solving: A Bibliography, 1950-1964.* Madison, Wisconsin: Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, The University of Wisconsin, 1964, pp. 3-6.

————, Harris, Chester W., and William Wiersma, *Strategies of Learning and Efficiency of Concept Attainment by Individuals and Groups.* Madison, Wisconsin: Department of Educational Psychology, School of Education, The University of Wisconsin, July, 1964.

Krathwohl, David R., Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Macia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook II: Affective Domain.* New York: David McKay, 1964. (Attempts to break down the value and valuing area into several observable dimensions. Provides a useful analysis of the nature of values.)

La Plante, Effie, and Thelma O'Donnell, *Developmental Values Through Library Books, A Selected Bibliography.* Division of Libraries, Chicago Public Schools. (A very lengthy list of books for youngsters organized according to R. J. Havighurst's developmental tasks. Categories include such things as brother-sister relations, appreciation of beauty, cooperation, civic competence, courage and adjustment to death and international understanding.)

Lisitsky, Gene, *Four Ways of Being Human.* New York: Viking Press, 1960. (A description of four primitive societies that represent a range of adjustment to very different environments. Reading level is appropriate for the average high school student and the better junior high student.)

Manis, Melvin, "Concept Formation," *Cognitive Processes.* Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1966.

Massialas, Byron G., and Andreas M. Kazamias, *Crucial Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies: A Book of Readings,* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964, 278 pp.; Paper, $4.95.

————, and F. R. Smith, *New Challenges in the Social Sciences: Implications of Research for Teaching.* Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1965, 261 pp., $3.95.

————, and Jack Zevin, *Creative Encounters in the Classroom.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967, 274 pp., $5.95.

Michaelis, John U., and A. M. Johnston, *The Social Sciences: Foundations of the Social Studies.* Rockleigh, N. J.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965; Paper, $5.95.

————, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968, Fourth Edition, 559 pp.

————, (Ed.) *New Trends in Teaching Series: Teaching Units in the Social Sciences; (1) Early Grades, (2) Grades III-IV, (3) Grades V-VI.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1966.

Morrissett, Irving (Ed.) *Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula.* (A report of a conference sponsored by the Social Science Education Consortium.) Boulder, Colorado: Social Science Education Consortium, 1967, 161 pp., $2.

_____, (Ed.) *Concepts and Structure in the New Social Studies.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967.

Muessig, Raymond H., *Discussion Pictures for Beginning Social Studies.* New York: Harper and Row, 1967. (A very useful tool for the elementary teacher. The book is simply a collection of photographs organized around personal-social themes. *The Teacher's Guide* clearly demonstrates how the pictures can be used in the teaching of values.)

_____, and Rogers, Vincent A. (Eds.), *Social Science Seminar Series.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965 and 1966.

The Study of Anthropology, by Pertti J. Pelto
Political Science: An Informal Overview, by Francis J. Sorauf
Sociology: The Study of Man in Society, by Caroline B. Rose
Geography: Its Scope and Spirit, by Jan O. M. Broek
The Nature and Study of History, by Henry Steele Commager
Economics and Its Significance, by Richard S. Martin and R. G. Miller

Myrdal, Gunnar, *An American Dilemma.* New York: Harper and Row, Chapters 1-2, Appendix 1 and Appendix 3. (A classic analysis of American values. Presents a theory of value change which has obvious possibilities for classroom use.)

Oliver, Donald W., and Shaver, James P., *Teaching Public Issues in the High School.* New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1966. (Perhaps the most carefully developed and tested approach to value analysis now available. Provides clear guides for the development of materials focused on public issues. Applicable to world history, U.S. history and problem centered courses.)

Parker, J. Cecil, and Louis J. Rubin, *Process as Content: Curriculum Design and the Application of Knowledge.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1966.

Phi Delta Kappan, April, 1969. Three articles dealing with the handling of values in the schools written by persons advocating very different viewpoints.

Public Issues Series, *Harvard Social Studies Project,* American Education Publications, Columbus, Ohio. Inexpensive unit booklets of about 50 pages each that develop issues focused in the American Revolution, the Rubard Era, Religious Freedom, The Rise of Organized Labor, Municipal Politics and so forth. Complete material for the unit is provided but the teacher can adopt the suggestions in many ways.

Raths, Louis, Merrill Harmin and Sidney Simon, *Values and Teaching.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1966. (A widely used and quoted source for handling values in the classroom. The bulk of the volume consists of specific teaching strategies that are readily adapted for classroom use. Contains a useful bibliography of materials related to the teaching of values.)

Riddle, Donald H., and Robert E. Cleary, (Eds.) *Political Science in the Social Studies.* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 36th Yearbook, 1966.

Rudner, R. S., *Philosophy of Social Science,* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966.

Sanders, Norris M., *Classroom Questions: What Kinds?* New York: Harper and Row, 1966.

Schulman, Lee S., and Evan R. Keislar (Eds.), *Learning by Discovery: A Critical Appraisal.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1966.

Servey, Richard E., *Social Studies Instruction in Elementary School,* San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1967.

Shaftel, Fannie R., and George, *Role-Playing for Social Values: Decision-Making in the Social Studies.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967, 416 pp., $5.75.

Shaver, James P., and Harold Berlak (Eds.), *Democracy, Pluralism, and The Social Studies.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1968, 438 pp., $4.95.

Smith, Frederick, R., and C. Benjamin Cox, *New Strategies and Curriculum in Social Studies.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Company ,1969.

Taba, Hilda, *Teacher's Handbook for Elementary Social Studies.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1967. (While much more than values are considered in this volume, it is an excellent guide to strategies for developing the thought processes used in value analysis.)

dsworth Continuing Education Series. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co. (A group of book-size

paperbacks that provide in-depth analyses of many contemporary moral and value issues. For the teacher and the good high school reader. Recent titles include:

John Burke, *The New Technology and Human Values*

Harry Girvetz, *Contemporary Moral Issues*

Leonard Freedman, *Issues of the Sixties* Second Edition: 1965-1970

D. E. Elias, Jr., et. al., *Metropolis: Values in Conflict*

Arthur C. Turner and Leonard Freedman, *Tension Areas in World Affairs*

Williams, Robin, *American Society, A Sociological Interpretation.* New York: Alfred Knopf, 1960, especially pp. 397-470. (A very detailed analysis of the American value system by a recognized authority.)

Womack, James G., *Discovering the Structure of Social Studies.* New York: Benziger Brothers, 1966.